THE USE OF THE TARGET LANGUAGE IN THE FRENCH LANGUAGE CLASSROOM: Co-operative Teaching as an Aid to Implementation

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ABSTRACT

Findings of empirical studies into the importance of input in foreign language learning suggest that, to provide sufficient communicative foreign language input in the context of school language classrooms, learners must be taught through the medium of the target language. Research shows that teachers who share a mother tongue with their learners often find it difficult to avoid breaking into the mother tongue to deal with classroom management but, when they do so, they not only restrict the amount of meaningful input to which the learners are exposed, but also risk slowing down the acquisition process

New data (gathered by means of two postal surveys during session 1987-88) show that non-native secondary school teachers of French in the Strathclyde Region of Scotland identify a hierarchy of difficulty among classroom management tasks ranging from tasks which are moderately simple to conduct in the foreign language (such as classroom organisation) to tasks which are extremely difficult to perform in the target language (such as discussing grammar). Further analysis of the survey data reveals that teachers who have a positive attitude towards the use of the target language as the medium of instruction have certain defining characteristics, the most important of which relate to enthusiasm for the foreign language.

In an attempt to find a way of helping teachers to teach through the medium of the target language, this thesis investigates claims made by practising teachers that teaching co-operatively with a second fluent target language speaker helps them maintain the use of French as the medium of instruction. Using survey and observational data, the thesis concludes that co-operative teaching can both increase the quantity, and improve the quality of foreign language input to which learners are

exposed. Furthermore, co-operative teaching is a valuable tool in the organisation and implementation of communicative language teaching methodology.

The thesis is in two parts

Part one provides the theoretical basis of the thesis, and describes the research context and design.

Part two analyses the findings of the mail administered surveys and of the small-scale observation study, and draws conclusions based on these findings

NOTE: In this thesis, while it is recognised that learners and teachers are just as likely to be female as male, for ease of expression they are treated as "impersonal masculine" throughout.

DECLARATION

The work in this thesis is my own.

Carole E. M. Franklin

DEDICATION

for

my parents Alex and Jessie Flisch

and

my husband Mark without whose support and encouragement this thesis would have been neither started nor finished.

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Frequently Used Abbreviations

L2	a generic term which encompasses both second and foreign languages
FL	Foreign Language
TL	Target Language (in the empirical study in this thesis the TL is French)
CT	Co-operative Teaching: a form of team teaching in which a second teacher enters the classroom of a single class of students and co-operates with the class' regular teacher.
SED	Scottish Education Department
SCE	Scottish Certificate of Education
JWP	Joint Working Party set up by the SED to design a syllabus for the new Standard Grade examinations
S-Grade	Standard Grade examination
FLA	Foreign Language Assistant, a native speaker of the TL (usually a student) who is not a trained teacher
TLI	Target Language Index of teachers' attitudes
COPTAS	Co-operative Teaching Analysis System: the interaction analysis system designed for this thesis

PART 1

THEORY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

Chapter 1

Target Language Input in Foreign Language Acquisition

1.0 Introduction

In the last fifteen years, considerable changes have taken place in the field of second and foreign language teaching and learning. Communicative language teaching methodology and syllabus design has largely replaced more traditional structural approaches. Although a survey of the communicative language teaching literature reveals some disagreement as to how to implement the communicative approach in the classroom, it is nevertheless accepted that the ultimate goal of foreign language learning is "communicative competence" or "communicative ability" (see, for example, Maley, 1986; Allwright, 1979; Littlewood 1981; Mitchell, 1988) which is defined below.

In order to acquire communicative competence, language learners must be given ample opportunity to hear, see, and use the foreign language in meaningful contexts. Consequently, in recent years, considerable attention has been paid by language acquisition researchers to the nature of the linguistic input to which the second or foreign language learner is exposed, and to the kind of interactional opportunities afforded him. While it is recognised that written input has an important part to play in the language acquisition process, it is oral input that is the focus of attention here.

Because of the potential difference in the quantity of input that is made available to the learner in different learning environments, in this thesis a distinction is made between *second* and *foreign* language learning. The second language learner lives in the country where the target language is the dominant native language. He, therefore, lives in an input-rich environment. By contrast, the foreign language learner learns a language which is not native to the country in which he lives, and is therefore exposed to the target language only in the classroom. School learners of French in

Scotland, who are the focus of the empirical study described in this thesis, learn French as a foreign language.

This thesis focuses on linguistic input which is supplied to the foreign language learner by teachers who share a mother tongue with their students. Research in this area is scarce, but it is clear that many teachers in this position experience considerable difficulty in teaching through the medium of the target language. Theoretical and empirical literature (discussed in detail below) suggest that when teachers break into the mother tongue to communicate with their learners, they not only restrict the amount of meaningful input to which the learners are exposed, but also risk slowing down the language acquisition process. This does not mean that the native language must be totally excluded from the foreign language classroom. There are situations, particularly at the beginning stages of language learning when learners have few linguistic resources at their disposal, where the native language is a valuable resource. Nevertheless, a means of helping teachers to maintain the use of the target language as the predominate means of communication in the classroom is of crucial importance.

This thesis evaluates claims made by practising teachers that teaching with a second fluent target language speaker (a "co-operative teacher") can both increase the quantity and improve the quality of the class teachers' target language.

1.0.1 The Nature of Communicative Competence

Defining communicative competence is fraught with difficulties. Almost twenty years after the term was first coined by Hymes (1972), experts in the field are still unable to reach a consensus as to its true nature. Davies (1989: 162) evocatively describes it as a "moben figure"

> [which] slides backwards and forwards ... between knowledge and control (or proficiency).

By this, Davies is presumably referring to the notion that

communicative competence involves both tacit internalised knowledge of grammatical structures and rules, and the ability to use that knowledge in concrete communicative situations (Hymes,1972). The exact relationship between the two kinds of knowledge is unclear. However, it is generally agreed that communicative competence is made up of a number of different abilities or skills. Canale and Swain (1980) identify four areas of ability. These are:

1. *Grammatical* competence. This concerns the knowledge of the language code.

2. *Sociolinguistic* competence. This includes not only knowing how to express meanings (propositions, attitudes and so on), but also knowing how to select the appropriate register and intonation for the context.

3. *Discourse* competence. This concerns the ability to produce cohesive and coherent written and spoken text. It involves employing cohesive devices such as reference, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical organisation; as well as coherence rules such as repetition, consistency and relevance of ideas.

4. *Strategic* competence. This concerns the ability of dealing with such performance factors as hesitation and false starts in order to "keep the channel of communication open" (Canale and Swain, 1980).

This definition of communicative competence is inadequate in a number of respects. Canale (1984:12) himself says that although the definition is based on a "broad range of research" there is no proof of its correctness (a deficiency which is possessed by all theoretical models of communicative competence), nor is it possible to determine which of the skills is more or most important. Moreover, Canale does not specify the research to which he refers so one can only speculate as to its nature. Although Canale and Swain's (1980) definition of communicative competence lacks the

complexity of Hyme's (1972) model which is frequently used by researchers as a starting point for discussion, it is the definition used in this thesis because it is the one most familiar to teachers of foreign languages in secondary schools in Scotland which is the context of the empirical study. Adoption of this definition of communicative competence was, therefore, made for practical rather than sound theoretical reasons.

Communicative competence is a much more complex notion than Canale and Swain appear to suggest. Native speakers can vary enormously in their communicative competence. The degree of competence displayed may depend on the channel being employed. Some native speakers are more competent in oral skills than in written skills or vice versa (Davies, 1989). Communicative competence may also depend on variables such as gender, ethnic group, relative status (Holmes, 1989); knowledge of socio-cultural norms (Olshtain and Blum-Kulka,1985; Davies, 1989); and awareness of the consequences of using standard or non-standard varieties of language (Stalker, 1989). A more thorough review of current thinking on the nature of communicative competence is to be found in a special issue of *Applied Linguistics* (1989: 10/2).

Given the lack of homogeneity in the communicative competence of native-speakers, the question arises as to what model of communicative competence is appropriate for second and foreign language learners. As Stalker (1989:185) says:

> From a practical viewpoint as language users, we need to know what the ideal is and what the criteria are for determining how closely we approximate to that ideal.

Davies (1989) suggests that what differentiates natives from non-native speakers with respect to communicative competence is simply "habit and use". The former have had more opportunity to use the foreign language and are therefore more competent. This is something of an over-simplification, given that it ignores other contributing factors such as individual learning differences,

personality, and motivation. It is, nevertheless, clear that if second language learners are to acquire communicative competence they must have the opportunity of using the foreign language in contexts which most closely resemble real life in the country where the target language is spoken. In the struggle for communicative competence, therefore, the kind of input that the learner is exposed to, and the type of interaction that he engages in, are of crucial importance.

1.1 Target Language Input in L2 Acquisition[1]

Most research on input in L2 acquisition concerns the nature of the input to which the learner is exposed, and the extent to which that input is assimilated by the learner. Corder (1981) suggests that the learner should be viewed as a "learning device". Since the learner cannot be dismantled to see how the device works, its nature must be inferred by comparing the input with the learner's output. Corder makes a distinction between *input* and *intake*. In other words the data to which the learner is exposed (the input) is not immediately assimilated by him, that is, it does not instantly become "intake". The proof of this can be seen by the fact that all learners make errors. If "input" were the same as "intake" then learners might be expected to produce correct forms only, an ideal which is far from the norm.

According to Krashen (1985), for input to be available as intake, it must be "comprehensible" . For input to be comprehensible the learner must negotiate meaning with his interlocutor. The learner by himself can grasp the meaning of linguistic input with the aid of the context of the discourse, extra-linguistic information,

[1] There is a problem of terminology here. In this thesis a distinction is made between learning a *foreign* language and learning a *second* language. This distinction is important because the learning environments are quite different. However when one is talking about language acquisition research, there is no single generic term to encompass both second and foreign language acquisition, yet in this section of chapter one the literature described is not restricted to second language acquisition research alone. For that reason the term "L2 acquisition" is used in this title. **L2** in this thesis therefore means both second and foreign language.

previously acquired linguistic knowledge, and knowledge of the world (Krashen, 1985; 2) and by asking for clarification. However, native speaking interlocutors can help by using "foreigner talk", that is: simplification strategies such as repetition, slower speech, gesture and so on (see Ellis, 1986 for a thorough review of research in this area). Ellis (1985) says that studies which concentrate on quantifying various categories of simplification strategies fail on two counts. Firstly, they generally treat native-speaker and learner strategies as discrete from one another. Communication is a two-way endeavour, so interlocutors must co-operate with one another to achieve understanding. Secondly, there is as yet no proof of a causal relationship between simplification strategies and second language acquisition.

White (1987) points out that since only the learner can be said to know his current level of competence in the foreign language, it is extremely difficult for the outsider to know how or whether to make the input comprehensible for him. Krashen (1985) says that for the learner to progress, input must be at a level of structural complexity slightly above that of the learner's current competence in the foreign language, this level he calls i+1; but, as White says, simplified input may, for some learners, be at the level of i-1. When this occurs, if Krashen is right, the learner cannot progress.

Further support for the notion that input need not be comprehensible to be acquired is supplied by anecdotal evidence of learners who have acquired a second language through listening to the radio (Larsen-Freeman, 1983). In these circumstances the learners would be unable to negotiate meaning with their interlocutors, so it is probable that much of the input would not be comprehensible to them. Ellis (1986), however, points out that since this evidence is anecdotal it is unreliable and, furthermore, since such learners would be unlikely to be able to use the language in spontaneous conversation, they cannot be said to have acquired the foreign language.

Ochs' (1982) study of children in Western Samoa provides further

evidence that input may not have to be comprehensible to be acquired. Her findings show that adults in Western Samoan society do not simplify their speech in any respect when communicating with children, yet the children still acquire their mother tongue. Although there is as yet no conclusive proof that mother tongue and second language acquisition processes are identical, it might be expected that some similarities between them exist. If this is so, Ochs' study provides further evidence for the theory that comprehensible input may not be necessary for language acquisition.

Ellis's study of two Punjabi speaking ESL pupils in England attempts to prove empirically the causal link between teacher simplification strategies and second language acquisition. In this longitudinal study, the progress of two children R and T was charted over a period of 9 months. The data to be analysed came from 19 audio recordings of face-to-face interaction between the class teacher and each child in an empty classroom in which the researcher was not present. There were two research questions to be answered:

1. to what extent the interactional features of each interview changed over time, and

2. what role these features may have played in the children's second language acquisition

Ellis' (1985) findings are inconclusive. At the end of the study learner R used more achievement strategies (use of first language, mime, asking for help, guessing what the teacher wanted) and fewer reduction strategies (ignoring the task, saying "no" or "I don't know" or changing the topic) than he did at the beginning. Learner T, on the other hand, showed no significant improvement in language use. The study attributed the differences in the learners' communicative strategies over time to the teacher's use of simplification strategies in communicating with the learners and the opportunities afforded the learners to "initiate the discourse topic" (Ellis, 1985:

81), but they could have just as easily been the result of the personality and intrinsic motivation of the learners. Learner R was an extrovert male child who found it easy to make friends with other non-native speaking children in his class. With them he was obliged to communicate in English, and would therefore be motivated to learn how to develop strategic competence so as to deal with communication breakdowns. T on the other hand was an introverted female child who only made friends with other Punjabi speaking girls. She would have had little opportunity to use the target language other than with the teacher. Moreover, since Punjabi speakers constitute a large ethnic population in Great Britain, these children need have had little contact with native English speakers outside the classroom. Wong-Fillmore (1985:25) says,

> Those who find it difficult to socialize with others or who feel constrained by the language differences that bar easy communication with classmates and teachers do not learn as much English.

The controversy over the nature and importance of comprehensible input in second language acquisition is liable to continue. As White says (1987:23-34)

> It is true that we have as yet very little idea of how the input interacts with the learner's internalized system ...

What we do know is that target language input of some sort must be made available to the learner. This thesis is concerned with the fact that in foreign (as distinct from second) language learning where the learner encounters the foreign language only in the classroom, and the teacher normally shares a native-language with his students, it cannot automatically be assumed that target language input which is made available to the learner will be both sufficient and appropriate.

1.2 Target Language Input in Foreign Language Acquisition

The amount of linguistic input to which the learner is exposed

varies according to the language learning environment. The second language learner lives in the optimum environment for second language acquisition. In a country where the target language is the dominant native tongue, the learner is constantly bombarded by linguistic input. He hears it in the streets, in the shops, at school or work, on the radio, and on television. He reads it on street signs, on food labels, in newspapers, in books and in magazines. In order to function effectively in the foreign country, the second language learner is obliged to use the foreign language to communicate his needs. He is therefore, in principal, highly motivated to learn the foreign language. Corder (1981:8; his emphasis) says

> ... given motivation, it is inevitable that a human being will learn a second language if he is exposed to the language data.

Of course, much of the input to which the second language learner is exposed may not be comprehensible to him and so may not be accessible as intake. As discussed above, large ethnic groups who maintain their own language and culture may have little need to communicate with native-speakers of the dominant tongue, and therefore may have little motivation to acquire the target language (Ellis, 1985, Swain, 1985; Wong-Fillmore, 1985). Nevertheless, the language input is available to them in the second language learning environment.

Foreign language learning is quite different. The foreign language learner is exposed to the language he is learning only in the classroom where he often shares a mother tongue with the teacher and the other learners. Consequently, there is no intrinsic motivation for him to use the target language to communicate his needs. The language classroom is an artificial language learning environment. When the learners and the teacher already share a means of communication in their mother tongue, every use of the target language, however communicative the context, has the function of practising linguistic forms. Yet, if Krashen (1985:2) is correct when he says that "input is the essential environmental ingredient", failure to use the target language as a major means of

communication in the classroom may deprive the learner of the only access he has to the kind of *real* communication in the target language that the second language learner meets outside the classroom.

Mitchell (1988:4) distinguishes between "practice" uses and "communicative" uses of classroom foreign language where the latter is

> [any] instance of FL use, productive or receptive, ... [in which] the people involved in producing/attending to the discourse have another purpose/intention additional to the general purpose of modelling/practising/displaying competence in formal aspects of the target language

When a teacher holds up a cardboard clock, and turning the hands asks different members of the class to tell him the time in the foreign language, his questions are merely linguistic prompts designed to enable the learners to practise telling the time. Focus is primarily on form rather than meaning. On the other hand, when a teacher (who has forgotten his watch) asks a pupil to tell him the time in the foreign language, he is engaged in communicative interaction where the focus of attention is primarily on meaning. When the foreign language teacher employs the target language as the medium of instruction, most instances of "communicative" spoken target language tend to be concerned with classroom management, such as checking who is absent, handing out books, disciplining a badly-behaved pupil, or giving instructions for a language practice activity. This thesis focuses on this kind of "communicative" target language.[2]

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[2] Reading materials, particularly those which require the learner to perform meaningful tasks (such as note-taking as a preparation for a written assignment) can also help develop the learners' communicative competence, but are unlikely to affect the learner's ability to interact orally with an interlocutor. Reading as a source of communicative input is, therefore, not discussed in this thesis.

1.3 Teaching in the TL: Support in the Literature

The notion that teachers should teach through the medium of the target language is not new. Howatt (1984:135), states that the adoption of the foreign language as the "normal" means of communication in the classroom was one of the fundamental principles of the Reform Movement which occurred in language teaching in the last twenty years of the 19th century. The Direct Method of language teaching also supports monolingualism. De Sauzé (1959:17), writing about the Cleveland Plan for the Teaching of Modern Languages, says:

> Very early in our experiment we found that classes in which the foreign language was used exclusively as a medium of instruction were showing appreciably better results than others in which English was used part of the time.

The hypothesis that teaching largely (if not exclusively) through the medium of the target language is essential for successful language learning is intuitively reasonable. Nevertheless it is important to assess the arguments for its necessity.

There are three sources of support for the notion that teachers should as far as possible teach through the medium of the target language. These are:
(1) theoretical, (2) empirical, and (3) common sense.

1.3.1 Theoretical Support

In this chapter, it has been hypothesised that for the language learner to acquire communicative competence, he must be exposed to sufficient linguistic input. In the foreign language classroom, there are two sources of spoken foreign language input available to the learner:

(i) audio-recordings (tape, and video or film)
(ii) real people:
  (a) the class teacher
  (b) class visitors and other adults
  (c) other learners

In this section the extent to which these sources might contribute to the development of communicative competence (as defined by Canale and Swain,1979) is discussed.

(i) Audio-recordings.

Many pre-recorded audio-tapes which are used in foreign language classrooms are integral parts of a course book. These recordings (designed specifically for the language learner) are used to present, practise and test comprehension of new language. The tapes are recorded by native-speakers of the language thus ensuring that the learner is exposed to authentic accents and intonation patterns. In addition, the language presented is grammatically accurate and contains no performance errors (such as hesitations or false starts). Through regular exposure to tape-recordings of this kind the learner can be helped to develop an accurate knowledge of the linguistic code. This should help to take care of grammatical and discourse competence. Furthermore, recordings made in different settings (home, school, shop, railway station) can help to expose the learner to a variety of registers and so help him acquire a knowledge of what kind of language is appropriate in which context. This is the basis of sociolinguistic competence.

If the major source of the learner's aural input is course-based tape-recordings of this kind, however, he will be exposed to a severely restricted range of vocabulary and structures. This kind of language input may be called "syllabus-speak". Although most course books in current use in school language classrooms are communicative in nature, and therefore (in principal) have syllabuses organised according to language functions rather than grammatical structures, a certain degree of structural grading still occurs. *Eclair* (Mary Glasgow, 1974), for example - a communicative French course used in many British secondary school classrooms - does not introduce the past tense in any form until the third book which the learner would not reach until his third year of language learning. *Tour de France* (SCCML, 1982) which is the course book used by teachers in the observation study described in this thesis also has a structurally graded syllabus. There is some

evidence that structurally grades syllabuses may slow down the learner's acquisition of the foreign language.

A number of studies which have focused on learners' acquisition of grammatical morphemes (such as the copula, and the progressive "ing" in English) have provided some evidence for the theoretical concept that learners of all languages acquire grammatical rules in a pre-determined sequence - a "natural order" (Krashen,1985;) - irrespective of their mother tongues and irrespective of the order in which the rules are presented to them (Hatch, 1978; Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982; Lightbown 1985a; Ellis, 1986, 1989).[3] If instruction has no appreciable effect on the order in which a learner will acquire grammatical structures, it would follow that drilling a structure which the learner is not ready to acquire, is a waste of time, although it is quite possible that he will <u>seem</u> to have learned it (Lightbown, 1985b: 265). The u-shaped learning curve is a phenomenon which is familiar to all teachers of foreign or second languages. The teacher drills a grammatical point with the learners. For a while the learners seem to have mastered it. Then comes a time where they cannot use it correctly, and then later again the structure reappears in the learner's production. It may be that, when the structure is drilled, it gets stored in the learner's short-term memory, but it is not assimilated as an acquired structure until the learner is ready to acquire it. Lightbown (1985a:103) discussing the effect of classroom learning on the acquisition of the progressive "ing" suggests that the resulting u-shaped learning curve might indicate

> ... that [the learners'] development had been slowed down by too-early insistence on correct production of certain language forms which would be expected to come later in a 'natural sequence'

Unlike Pienemann (1985: 69) however, who believes that "... replacing intuitively derived syllabuses by learnable syllabuses is a

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[3] Although similarities have been identified between the order of acquisition for mother tongue learners and second language learners, there is some doubt as to whether a common "natural order" of acquisition exists for all learners in all learning environments.

necessary, though by no means sufficient, step in improving language teaching", Lightbown feels that even if a natural order exists, not enough is known about it to base a syllabus on it. Alternatively, , she recommends that

> practice of correct forms be replaced by greater emphasis on providing learners with a variety of language in meaningful contexts.
>
> Lightbown, 1985a: 103

One way of achieving this is through the use of "authentic" teaching materials. By "authentic" is meant books and magazines, films and videos produced for native speakers of the foreign language, and audio-recordings of real people interacting in real situations. Authentic language learning materials are ungraded with respect to complexity of grammatical structures, and variety of vocabulary. Consequently, extensive use of language teaching materials such as these helps the teacher to simulate in the classroom the natural language learning environment of the foreign country.[4] Authentic audio- and video-recordings can, for example, be used to

> ... stimulate [the learner's] guessing strategies since much of what is heard will be new ... [and] offer scope for gist extraction, as it will be unnecessary to understand the full detail[s] ...
>
> SCCML, 1982

However, if the learner fails to understand audio- and video-recordings even after employing guessing strategies, he cannot interact with them to negotiate meaning. Consequently, there is no way for him to acquire strategic competence, which is an

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[4] For Widdowson (1978: 80) what is important is not whether or not texts are 'genuine', but rather whether the use to which they are put can be considered as "authentic". He sees "genuineness" as being an absolute quality that is intrinsic to the text itself, whereas authenticity "is a characteristic of the relationship between the passage and the reader and it has to do with appropriate response". In other words the source of the material is less important than what is done with it. This is an important distinction, but it ignores the advantages to be accrued from the ungraded-nature of the linguistic input supplied by authentic materials.

essential ingredient of communicative competence. Furthermore if the input is totally incomprehensible it is unlikely that it will become intake.

Since many language teaching courses include authentic audio and video-recordings only as supplementary teaching materials, which may or may not be used by the teacher, authentic materials cannot realistically be relied upon to supply the learners with "quality" input, that is input containing a wide range of vocabulary and structures.[5] Course-based recordings also fail on this count since they only contain syllabus-speak. It is important, therefore that the teacher provide alternative sources of spoken input. This can be done if the target language is the predominate means of communication in the classroom, not only between the teacher and the learners, but also among the learners themselves, and between classroom participants and class visitors.

(ii) Real People

(a) the Class Teacher

Much of classroom management discourse is peculiar to the context of the classroom, and so is potentially just as restricted as the language of course-based tape-recordings. Nevertheless, it is possible to introduce the language of the outside world if the teacher makes a point of talking to the learners about his own and their interests and activities outside school. Informal chat can serve both to practise known language and to introduce new structures and vocabulary. Not all of what is said to the learners will necessarily be understood by them, but if the teacher employs communication strategies such as repetition, paraphrase, and gesture, the learners can be trained to cope with the unknown and the unexpected, just as they would be obliged to do were they in the foreign country. They can be trained to listen actively for gist comprehension and, when they still fail to understand, they can interact with the teacher and ask for clarification. Moreover, if the

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[5] For example, *Tour de France* Book One contains only one authentic recording which is not an intrinsic part of the course materials. Instead, it appears as a supplementary section entitled "Extra!" to be used at the end of the book.

learners are themselves expected to use the foreign language when asking for pencils or new exercise books, they too can develop communication strategies in order to make themselves understood. Above all, the learner who perceives that it is necessary to use the foreign language to communicate his needs will be highly motivated to do so and, as has already been suggested, motivation is one of the keys to foreign language learning success.

(b) Classroom Visitors and other Adults

Sociolinguistic competence can be developed if the learner is given the opportunity of hearing and speaking to a variety of people in a variety of contexts. Clark (1981: 151-2) identifies 53 different management language tasks under 10 headings which learners, teachers and other school personnel could, in an ideal world, perform in the foreign language.[6] Classroom visitors, for example (be they pupils, departmental colleagues, the head teacher, or the foreign language assistant) could all be addressed in the foreign language. Pupils sent on errands might be expected to use the foreign language when entering the class of another foreign language teacher. Signs in the foreign language could be placed around the school, and appropriate school announcements could be made over the public address system in the foreign language. In other words the target language could become the lingua franca of the foreign language department.

(c) Other Learners

It is evident that, if the learner is to become fluent in the use of the foreign language, he must be given ample opportunity to use it in face-to-face interaction. Given the large size of school foreign language classes, it is unrealistic to expect the learner who only ever interacts with his teacher to have sufficient practice to

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[6] The headings are: social activity (pupil- and teacher-initiated); institutional management (headteacher-initiated) ; planning of classwork (teacher-initiated) ; negotiation of activities and lesson content (pupil- and teacher-initiated); classroom management (mainly teacher-initiated); teaching (mainly teacher-initiated); pupils' requests/intitiations; inter-pupil organisation (pupil-initiated); evaluation (mainly teacher-initiated); discussion with foreigner in the classroom (mainly pupil-initiated).

become a fluent speaker. Paired and group activities allowing the learners to interact with each other in meaningful ways are an essential part of communicative methodology (Littlewood, 1981; Maley, 1981 ; Pattison, 1987). When pupils are engaged in face-to-face interaction with their peers, they are able (to a certain extent) to deal with break-downs in communication, thus helping to develop their strategic competence. Some advance in grammatical and discourse competence might be expected to take place since learners can learn vocabulary and structures from each other. Nevertheless, as a primary source of language input, the language of one's peers is inadequate. Wong Fillmore (1985) points out that since learners produce imperfect forms, there is a risk of errors becoming fossilised if learners communicate in the foreign language only with each other. Peer interaction should be seen principally as a means of increasing fluency and confidence.

Theoretical support: summary

Acquiring the four kinds of knowledge and skills (grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, strategic) that make up communicative competence requires sufficient input and opportunities for interaction. The best way to learn a language is to join a community where it is spoken, and to be obliged to use it constantly. This is not a realistic option for most foreign language learners, but a teacher can attempt to simulate in the classroom the environment of the foreign country by bathing the learner in the foreign language. This involves, in addition to the use of tape- and audio-recordings and peer interaction, the use of the foreign language as the major means of communication in the classroom.

Each of the sources of aural input discussed in this chapter may be viewed as necessary but not, by themselves, sufficient conditions for development of communicative competence in the classroom.

Course-based recordings containing grammatically accurate syllabus-speak can be used effectively to present new language in context, and to test the learners' comprehension of what has been

practised. However, since they may contain structures which the learners are not yet ready to acquire, course-based recordings as a primary source of target language input may slow down the language acquisition process.

Authentic audio- and video-recordings supply the kind of language that the learner would encounter in the foreign country. The input is not structurally graded so the learners can, in theory, acquire grammatical structures when they are ready to do so. However, since the learners cannot interact with their interlocutors to deal with breakdowns in communication, much of the "quality" language provided by authentic recordings is likely to be incomprehensible and therefore unavailable as intake.

Communication in the foreign language with other learners provides opportunities for interaction and negotiation of meaning, but since the input provided by another learner is liable to be grammatically inaccurate, this may lead to fossilisation of learners' errors.

The teacher, a competent and fluent target language user, can supply comprehensible input which goes beyond syllabus-speak. If he employs the target language as the lingua franca of the classroom, he can provide quality input which may permit the learners to acquire grammatical and discourse competence in a natural way. If the learners are obliged to use the foreign language to communicate their needs, they can acquire strategic competence. If classroom visitors are addressed at all times in the foreign language, the learners can be exposed to a variety of registers which will help develop their sociolinguistic competence. The teacher cannot replace all other sources of input, but if he fails to teach though the medium of the target language he not only restricts the learners access to quality comprehensible input, but also risks slowing down the acquisition process.

1.3.2 Empirical support

Empirical proof is necessary to validate the theoretical premise, discussed above, that teaching through the medium of the target language is a necessary condition for language acquisition. Although, to date, there have been no studies set up specifically to investigate the relationship between teacher use of the target language and student achievement, there has been a small number of studies in which teacher use of the target language has been identified, along with a number of other independent variables, as being correlated with student achievement. These studies are discussed below.

Burstall, Jamieson, Cohen and Hargreaves (1974), in a study which was set up to investigate the effectiveness of teaching French in primary schools throughout England and Wales, concluded in their summary of results that

> in French classes where little or no use was made of English by the teacher, both the pupil's level of achievement in French and the teacher's linguistic proficiency was rated significantly more highly than in French classes where the teacher made frequent use of English. In French classes where the pupils themselves made little or no use of English, their own proficiency in French was rated significantly more highly than in classes where the pupils made frequent use of English.
>
> Burstall, Jamieson, Cohen and Hargreaves (1974:206)

In other words both the teachers' and the learners' use of the target language were positively correlated with student achievement.

In support of these findings, Burstall et al. make reference to an earlier report which established that the oral proficiency of primary school pupils who were taught exclusively in French was significantly higher than those who depended more on translation or explanation in English (Burstall, 1968, 1970).

In the USA, Carroll's study of foreign language attainments of American college and university students (1967; quoted in Burstall et al, 1974) established that one of the important variables

contributing to higher achievement in foreign language tests was the extent to which the teachers and learners used the foreign language rather than English in class. In a later study on the Teaching of French in Eight Countries, Carroll (1975) found that proficiency in listening skills was closely related to the amount of French spoken in the classroom.[7]

It should be borne in mind that, since the findings of these studies are merely correlational and the direction of causality is in doubt, it would be unwise to make too much of them. While it is possible that learners become higher achievers because teachers speak more French, it is equally possible that teachers speak more French to pupils who are already higher achievers.

Further support for teaching through the medium of the target language is, however, supplied by Wong-Fillmore (1982: 170) in her longitudinal study of the characteristics of good and poor learners of English as second language. She concludes that:

> ESL is done well when it takes the form of lessons in which the language is both an object of instruction and a medium of communication.

Despite the difficulties of interpreting correlational relationships, the empirical research discussed above provides some support for the premise that, for learners to acquire communicative competence in the foreign language, teachers must teach through the medium of the target language.

1.3.3 Support from Common Sense

The notion that teachers of French should teach in French is intuitively reasonable. Common sense dictates that to learn a foreign language one must be exposed to it, and that although it is possible to learn a foreign language through the medium of the mother tongue (as did most contemporary British teachers of Modern

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[7] The countries studied were: Chile, England and Wales, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Romania, Scotland, Sweden, and the United States of America.

Languages), such teaching does not generally prepare the learners for face-to-face communication. Where the teacher shares a mother tongue with his pupils there is, inevitably, a strong temptation to break into that language in order to deal with the management of the classroom, but as Clark (1981) says, when the teacher resorts to speaking the shared native language,

> the message that is being given to the pupils is: use English when you have something <u>real</u> to say. Use the foreign language when we are doing exercises, question-and-answer work, and other <u>unreal</u> (non-communicative) things.
>
> Clark (1981:153)

There is some disagreement in the literature as to whether the foreign language should be the exclusive means of communication in the classroom. While Clark (1981) maintains that all classroom activity can be performed in the foreign language, Savignon (1972:27), in her study of university learners of French, found that

> the intermittent use of English ... appeared to contribute significantly to a relaxed informal relationship among the participants, and this kind of group rapport was essential if meaningful communication was to take place in French.

Carroll (1975: 278) says that to ensure that learners develop effective listening and speaking skills it is essential to "emphasize the use of the foreign language in the classroom", but he also advocates the judicious use of the mother tongue to explain meanings of words and grammatical features of the language.

Grittner (1977:155) differentiates between "proper" and "improper" uses of the mother tongue (English). He says that

> ... any use of English that leads to more efficient and intensive practice <u>in the foreign language</u> by the students is good use of English; any use of English that leads the student <u>away</u> from the target language or tends to make him a passive listener is bad use of English."

This is the view held by the author of this thesis. Ultimately,

when the learners have acquired enough target language to cope, the target language should, as far as possible, become the lingua franca of the foreign language classroom. At the early stages of language learning, however, judicious use of the mother tongue is perfectly acceptable, and may even be necessary.

Exclusive use of the target language can be extremely threatening to beginning language learners for whom almost all foreign language input is incomprehensible. At this stage it is very important to create a pleasant and encouraging language-learning environment where the learner can be sure that his teacher will explain what is not understood. Otherwise the learners may "... simply shut [their] ears and go to sleep" (Burstall et al, 1974: 243). When this happens language acquisition cannot take place. Krashen (1985) says that although comprehensible input is necessary for acquisition, the learner has to be open to the input for it to be available as intake. Krashen's "affective filter "is a mental block which comes into effect when the learner lacks motivation or self-confidence, or is anxious.

To ensure that the learners' affective filter is down, certain topics of discourse are probably best dealt with in the native language. Complex instructions related to classroom administration (other than the calling of the class roll), and discussion of what activities are to take place in class each day, might best be dealt with in English at the beginning of the lesson. Then, as Chastain (1971) suggests, the target language might be used more frequently as the lesson progresses. Chastain proposes (apparently arbritarily) that the target language be used from 25 - 80% in the first third of each lesson, from 80-90% in the second third and almost exclusively in the last third. The exact percentages are unimportant. What is important is that the teacher should not fall into the trap of "inertia", namely the tendency to continue to use the native language simply because he has begun the lesson in that language, and because changing to the target language may result in problems of comprehension which the teacher may not feel competent to deal with in the foreign language. When the teacher gives in to inertia,

his use of the mother tongue encourages the student to expect that all problems of comprehension will automatically be solved in the mother tongue, if only he waits long enough.

It is evident that to become communicatively competent in the classroom learners must believe that the foreign language is a real means of communication which they must employ to communicate their needs. Teachers cannot expect pupils to use the foreign language if they themselves avoid doing so. The target language should increasingly become the predominate medium of instruction throughout the learners' period of language study. As the learner becomes more communicatively competent so the teacher should use the target language more exclusively.

1.3.4 What Happens in Practice?

Theory, research and common sense all point in the same direction. Teachers need, as far as possible, to use the target language as the medium of instruction. To what extent do they do so? Three studies conducted in the early 1980's are relevant here.

Parkinson (1983), in a Scottish study to evaluate the use of *Tour de France* (a communicative language course), reports that, in as many as 60% of the classrooms observed, the use of French for managerial purposes was restricted to "bonjour" and "au revoir". Even in the 10% of classes where the target language was used extensively, English was still used for detailed explanations.

Mitchell (1988) reports that, while the 59 Scottish teachers interviewed in her study were aware of the desirability of teaching through the medium of the target language, only a very small percentage of them believed that the foreign language could be used exclusively in the classroom. Most teachers felt that a mix of the two languages was appropriate. Mitchell supplies a table of ten classroom management language activities which were singled out by interviewees as examples of what can or cannot be done in the foreign language. Not every teacher mentioned the same activities,

so the percentages (calculated on an N of 59) do not sum to 100 (table 1 below). Nevertheless it is evident that there was a general consensus of opinion that the only activity that could be easily conducted in French was the giving of classroom organisational instructions and that, at the other end of the scale activities such as teaching grammar, disciplining pupils, or teaching them background, were best dealt with in English.

Wing (1980) presents comparable findings in her study of teachers' use of the target language with high school learners of Spanish as a foreign language in the USA. When Wing's data is displayed in the same format as those of Mitchell, a similar hierarchy of difficulty among classroom management tasks emerges (table 1.2 below). Classroom organisation such as greetings and routine instructions appeared to be easiest to perform in the target language, while discussing culture (background) and grammar were most difficult.

Table 1.1 Appropriacy of Foreign and First Languages for Classroom Management Purposes (Mitchell, 1988)

N=59; Figures in boxes show percentages of at least 25%

PROPOSED ACTIVITY	PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS ADVOCATING	
	FOREIGN LANGUAGE	ENGLISH
Informal talk with pupils	12	10
Organising the classroom	[51]	7
Activity instructions	8	[27]
Explaining meanings	not coded	22
Explaining grammar	-	[50]
Teaching background	-	[27]
Discussing objectives	-	14
Correction of written work	2	2
Running tests	-	7
Disciplining	2	[34]

Wing (1980: 202) says,

teachers who say they conduct their classes entirely in the target language often add the disclaimer: 'but not the grammar, of course'. Grammar analysis is considered to be an area of weakness in the students' preparation in the native language and thus a potential problem area in the the target language.

It is interesting to note that the percentages of teachers claiming to be able to perform management tasks in the foreign language in Wing's study were much higher than in Mitchell's. There is no obvious reason for this except that Wing's data comes from a closed question in a questionnaire while Mitchell's data is from personal interview alone. Perhaps teachers are more honest in face-to-face interviews, or perhaps the difference reflects national attitudes towards language teaching methodology.

Table 1.2 Use of Spanish for Management Tasks (adapted from Wing, 1980). N= 42

PROPOSED ACTIVITY	PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS ADVOCATING		
	Spanish (75-100% of time)	Spanish (50% of time)	English (75-100% of time)
Greetings	98	2	0
Praising students	96	2	0
Routine Instructions	93	7	0
Discussing reading	93	5	2
Giving homework	76	19	5
Transitions	74	19	7
Instructions (quizzes/ tests)	59	29	12
Disciplining Pupils	52	24	24
Vocabulary	48	31	21
Summarizing	40.5	40.5	19
Correcting errors	45	31	24
Discussing Culture	24	57	19
Explaining grammar	19	40.5	40.5

It should be pointed out that the problem of teacher target language use identified in these studies is not restricted to British and American teachers of French or Spanish. It is also a problem for non-native teachers of English as a foreign language. Sprengel (1984) in Germany and Medgyes (1986) in Hungary both identify teaching through the medium of the target language as being a major

problem in their schools. The same may be true in other countries.

1.3.5 Teaching in the TL: Support in the Literature. Summary

The theoretical and empirical literature discussed in this chapter show that there is good reason to believe that teachers who employ the target language as the major means of classroom communication contribute substantially to their students' acquisition of the target language. However, many teachers who share a native language with their students find it difficult to avoid the use of the mother tongue when dealing with classroom management. Unless subsequent empirical research shows that there is no direct causal relationship between target language use and student achievement, there is a real need for a solution to be found for this potentially serious problem. Co-operative teaching has been proposed by practising foreign language teachers in the west of Scotland as such a solution.

1.4 Co-operative Teaching in the FL Classroom

Co-operative teaching is a form of team teaching which Shaplin (1964: 15) defines as

> a type of instructional organisation, involving teaching personnel and the students assigned to them, in which two or more teachers are given responsibility, working together, for all or a significant part of the instruction of the same group of students.

Two broad types of team teaching may be identified:

1. the *associate teacher* type where the teachers are jointly responsible for one large group of students. Each teacher no longer has his own class, but should think of himself as being one of the team. The group of students may remain intact for the presentation of new material, but generally it is subdivided on the basis of individual needs.

2. the *coordinate teacher* type where the classroom unit of about

20-30 students is preserved but classes are scheduled so as to be combined at certain times for certain purposes.

Co-operative teaching may be seen as a variation of type two. Here the classroom unit is maintained, but instead of combining two or more groups, a second teacher enters the classroom of a single class of students and co-operates with the class' regular teacher. In the context of modern language departments in secondary schools, this second teacher will take one of four forms: (a) a "remedial" or "learning support" teacher (that is, one who is specially qualified to help pupils with learning difficulties); (b) a subject teacher from the same department; (c) a student teacher on teaching practice; or (d) a foreign language assistant who is a native speaker of the language being taught, but seldom a trained teacher.

A survey set up in 1985 "to investigate the provision for and conduct of co-operative teaching in Glasgow secondary schools", and to evaluate its efficacy (SRC, 1986a), found that Modern Languages departments were approximately three times more likely to organise their co-operative teaching on the basis of a subject specialist than on that of a remedial teacher. This was probably because in modern languages departments, the most effective co-operative teacher would be one who was also a fluent speaker of the target language. While it is possible that a remedial teacher could have studied the foreign language at university, and so be competent to help learners with writing and speaking at a very elementary level, it is relatively improbable that he would be sufficiently fluent in that language to be able to help with language presentation. This thesis focuses on co-operative teaching with subject specialists and foreign language assistants only.

There is very little published literature on co-operative teaching as it is implemented in modern languages departments in Scotland, and nothing specifically dealing with the use of the target language as the medium of instruction. On the contrary, most articles on the subject of team teaching concern experiments whose objective was

> to put together teachers with varying abilities in content knowledge and skills in order to capitalize on individual teaching strengths and to minimize weaknesses
>
> Davis, 1975

Many team teaching experiments of this kind took place in the USA in the 1960s and 70s, and involved the total reorganisation of the structure and curriculum of primary or secondary schools (Beggs, 1964; Institute of Field Studies Teachers' College, 1965; Davis, 1975).

By contrast, co-operative teaching (which has been declared official policy by Strathclyde Regional Council in Scotland) was originally introduced into secondary schools as a way of dealing with what was seen as the socially stigmatising pratice of extracting pupils with learning difficulties from their normal classroom for individual tuition. Since it's original introduction, however, co-operative teaching has become more valuable than was originally anticipated.

A discussion paper on co-operative teaching produced for teachers of Modern Languages by Strathclyde Regional Council (Glasgow division), lists ten advantages of having a co-operative teacher in the classroom.

1. Many more individual language needs can be negotiated during teacher/pupil interactions. This is particularly important when the topic involves likes and dislikes, or relates to hobbies, home life, and leisure activities.

2. Two teachers can share the job of presenting material. They can prepare DIALOGUES relating to general and specific needs. They can improvise. Pupils then observe them using the target language as the normal mode of communication. The model is "live" and flexible: not disembodied, idealised, and intractable as pre-recorded dialogues tend to be.

3. Pupils have more opportunities to speak on a one-to-one basis. Whilst one teacher controls the class in groups or as single group, the other teacher deals with individual pupils. The pupils have more opportunity to speak, and more time can be spent on remediation and extension.

4. The individual pupil feels that he/she is getting more attention, and has more opportunity to tackle personal problems. The reduction of anxiety and the growth of self-confidence are crucial factors in developing competence in a second language. There is a general improvement of motivation and involvement in most classes where two teachers operate as a team.

5. Immediate assistance is possible in practical matters such as distributing resources, clarifying instructions, dealing with emergencies etc.

6. The work of the class is maintained if one of the teachers is absent.

7. Special concentrated tuition is possible e.g. for absentees or acute individual learning difficulties.

8. Teachers share the tasks of preparation, presentation, implementation and assessment.

9. Teachers are able to learn from each other and share ideas.

10. Teachers tend to look more closely at the structure of programmes and materials because classwork must be planned and discussed thoroughly.

SRC (Glasgow), 1986b: 4

The organisational benefits of having a second person in the classroom to help with paired and group activities are stressed in the small number of articles which deal specifically with co-

operative teaching in the language classroom (Beattie, no date; McFadden, no date; Burns, 1984; Aitken, 1986; SRC 1986a, 1986b). In a normal classroom, while the teacher is working with one group, the rest of the class is required to work without supervision. In secondary school classrooms this is particularly problematic since few adolescent pupils are motivated to keep working while not under the direct gaze of their teacher. Co-operative teaching provides an ideal solution. As Burns (1984: 76) says,

> possibly the main advantage [of co-operative teaching] is having another teacher in the room - another pair of eyes, another pair of ears, and especially if the class tends to be fractious. It's having someone to go round and check on what's being done, to comment on spelling, neatness, punctuation. . . . it's another ear to listen when pupils are practising oral work...

Shaplin (1964) points out, however, that group work alone does not guarantee success in learning. Time needs to be spent on providing the groups with appropriate activities. What can be said is that team teaching/co-operative teaching "may offer a framework within which improved instruction may eventually develop" (1964: 12).

A second major advantage of co-operative teaching has particular relevance in the context of this thesis: the co-operative teacher as co-communicator. Burns says that it is important to view the co-operative teacher as having a positive contribution to make to the language learning process, namely as another source of comprehensible input. Two teachers communicating with each other in the foreign language constitute a far more convincing model of the target language than a pre-recorded tape. If the teachers deviate from syllabus-speak, the learners can be exposed to better quality input (in terms of diversity of verbs and structures) than they would normally encounter with their regular class teacher. Communicating with a fluent target language speaking adult also permits demonstration of strategies for dealing with the unpredictable (McFadden, no date). Furthermore, it is possible that the classroom teacher would find it easier to conduct the class

largely (if not entirely) in the target language if at all times he were speaking in it when communicating with the co-operative teacher (Aitken, 1986). In those circumstances, it would be relatively unnatural for the teacher to break into English to speak to the pupils.

The claim that co-operative teaching can help teachers maintain the use of the target language was frequently repeated to the author of this thesis in informal discussion with practising language teachers in Strathclyde and provided the impetus for the formulation of the research questions which are presented at the beginning of chapter 2.

Chapter 2
Research Questions, Context and Design

2.0 The Research Questions

This thesis is concerned with "communicative" foreign language input as defined by Mitchell (1988).[1] It focuses on the difficulties experienced by non-native teachers in teaching though the medium of the target language, and addresses two questions:

1. To what extent (if any) does teaching with a second fluent target language speaker (a co-operative teacher) increase the quantity of "communicative" target language used by the teacher(s)?

2. To what extent (if any) does teaching with a second fluent target language speaker (a co-operative teacher) improve the quality of the teachers' "communicative" target language?

The focus in this thesis is on process rather than product. Although it is recognised that the ultimate goal of any study of teacher target language discourse must be an evaluation of its effect on learners' language acquisition, it is necessary, first, to establish to what extent teachers employ the target language in the classroom. This study is concerned with this preliminary issue.

Although the empirical study concerns the teaching of French in the Strathclyde region of Scotland, the research questions addressed are relevant to other languages in other foreign language learning contexts.

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[1] To remind the reader, Mitchell's definition states: "Any instance of FL use, productive or receptive, ... [in which] the people involved in producing/attending to the discourse have another purpose/intention additional to the general purpose of modelling/practising/displaying competence in formal aspects of the target language"

2. Research Context

2.1.0 Introduction

The choice of Strathclyde region in Scotland as the context of the empirical study described in this thesis was made for two reasons. Firstly, the author of the thesis is a former teacher of French who taught in Glasgow for twelve years, and so had numerous school contacts which simplified the setting up of the study. More importantly, co-operative teaching has been declared official regional policy by Strathclyde Regional Council in the West of Scotland, and while not every school in the region currently employs it, there was a sufficient number of Modern Language departments using co-operative teaching in Glasgow alone (31 during session 1987-88) for it to be possible to examine its effect on the teacher's use of the target language as the medium of instruction.

Part one of this chapter traces a number of important developments in the Scottish educational system which resulted in the adoption of communicative language teaching methodology and the development of the Standard Grade examination. Secondly, it describes French teaching in Strathclyde Secondary Schools which are the context of the empirical study described in this thesis. Part two of the chapter describes the research design.

2.2 FL Teaching in Scotland: Historical Overview.

2.2.1 Comprehensivisation and Raising of the School Leaving Age

Two important events: the comprehensivisation of secondary school education (SED 1965) and the raising of the school leaving age from 15 to 16 in 1972 had a profound effect on the teaching of modern languages in Scottish secondary schools. Prior to comprehensivisation all pupils, at the age of eleven or twelve, had been relegated to senior or junior secondary schools on the basis of their academic performance in primary school. Only senior secondary school pupils were able to take the nationally recognised Scottish Certificate of Education (SCE) Ordinary and Higher Grade examinations, allowing them to move on to further education, and/or well-paid professional

jobs. Only senior secondary school pupils were allowed to study a foreign language.

Comprehensivisation with its common course of subjects for all pupils to be studied in the first two years of secondary schooling was designed as a positive step towards equality of education, but it faced teachers with the new problem of finding appropriate teaching materials for a wider range of ability than they were accustomed to dealing with. Many language departments overcame the difficulty by organising their first year (S1) classes in sets graded according to ability and supplementing their academically orientated language courses with school-produced worksheets for the less-able. Then, in second year (S2) while the more-able pupils struggled on with the intricacies of French grammar, it was common for teachers of low-ability pupils to move away from the formal study of the language towards a more project-based background studies approach. Many of these pupils opted out of language learning at the end of their second year.

The difficulty of finding suitable teaching material for less-academic children was intensified with the raising of the school leaving age from 15 to 16 in 1972 as this resulted in a larger percentage of less-able pupils opting to study French in third (S3) and fourth (S4) year. There were two consequences of this. Either non-certificate third year classes were set up using watered-down academic courses, and/or "European studies" materials which focussed on geography, politics and culture, but had no foreign language component. Alternatively the less-able learners were put into SCE certificate classes and the teachers were obliged to prepare them for the Ordinary Grade examination whose focus on written rather than spoken skills demanded a level of competence in the foreign language which less-able pupils could not be expected to achieve.

At that time, there was a clear need for a language teaching approach which would be suitable for all levels of academic ability.

2.2.2 Reports on Language Learning in the 1970's

Two reports produced in the 1970's on the learning of French at school focused on the lack of attention paid to the differing needs of language learners as a major contributing factor to the failure of school pupils in learning a foreign language.

Burstall et al's (1974) longitudinal study on the teaching of French at primary school examined the attitudes to and the success in learning French of 18,000 pupils in 125 primary schools in England in an attempt to establish whether French should be introduced at all levels in primary schools. Although the findings were inconclusive in this respect, the bulk of evidence suggested that "primary" French was not proving to be a success, either in terms of pupil achievement, or in motivating them to further study of language at secondary school. Failure to recognise the differing language needs of learners with different characteristics and capabilities was pinpointed as a major cause of pupil under achievement.

> Unless there is a sustained effort to redefine the objectives of teaching French in order to meet pupil's differing needs, some children will not realize their full potential, while others will inevitably experience failure.
>
> (Burstall et al, 1974: 243)

The general recommendations of Carroll's (1975) study of the teaching of French in eight countries also pinpoint the objectives of language learning as an area for revision.

Both Burstall and Carroll present the view that since there is no single language teaching methodology appropriate for all learners, it is important to establish the needs of the learners, and to attempt to tailor a course to these needs. In addition, they identified as crucial to learner competence in listening and speaking skills teacher fluency in the foreign language, and the need for French to be used a substantial amount of the time instead of the mother tongue.

2.2.3 Motivational Effect of Communicative Language Courses

For many teachers of French in Great Britain "communicative" language teaching courses appeared to provide a means of meeting their learners' needs. Unlike traditional language course syllabuses, which were graded according to which grammatical structures were considered easiest to learn, communicative syllabuses (as they are realised in British communicative courses for the teaching of French) are typically organised on the basis of functions (namely the use to which the language is put, e.g. apologising, complimenting, complaining) and notions (the language required to express these functions) which have been identified by means of a needs analysis as being of potential value to the target learners. This means, in principal, that even the beginner learns to communicate right from the first lesson (using structures which might well not appear in a structural syllabus until very much later). Consequently, when he ceases to study the language he should be able to cope in various real-life situations, although this may be to a limited degree only. This highly motivating aspect of communicative language teaching methodology has been noted by Canale and Swain (1980), Jakobovits (1972), van Ek (1976), and Mitchell (1983), among others.

However, as discussed in chapter 1 (page 12), although the syllabuses of two of the most common communicative courses (*Eclair,* Mary Glasgow, 1974, and *Tour de France* SCCML, 1982) used for the teaching of French in schools in Strathclyde are ostensibly organised on the basis of functions, some structural grading still occurs.

The introduction of the past tense in these two courses provides an example of the apparent ambivalence of the course authors towards grammatical and functional syllabuses.[2] The teacher's book of *Tour de France* states,

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[2] A third communicative course used in Scottish schools, *Action* (Buckby, 1980), presents the past tense in a way that is consistent with the rationale of communicative language learning.

> In a communicative approach it is not reasonable to spend one or two years using the present tense alone; from an early point the conversation will turn naturally to things past and future as well as to things present.
>
> Tour de France Teachers' Book; Stage 2: 67

Nevertheless, apart from a few holophrastic phrases such as "j'ai oublié mon crayon" scattered throughout Book One, the learners are not exposed to the past tense until Book Two (which they would not reach before the end of their first year of language learning). Then, in one single page, they are introduced to the perfect tense with "avoir" (regular and irregular past participles) and the imperfect tense using "c'était" plus an adjective to say things like "it was great/terrific/horrible" and so on.

Eclair too presents the past tense in a totally uncommunicative manner. No attempt is made to introduce it in the units corresponding to the learners' first or second year of French study, neither in holophrastic phrases nor formally. Instead, the perfect tense with "avoir" is introduced in unit 15, which would correspond roughly to the last three months of third year; and the perfect tense with "être" verbs is not presented until unit 16, which could not possibly be approached until fourth year. In both cases, the tenses are exploited in the modes of listening reading and writing, but <u>not</u> in speaking! The imperfect tense is not encountered until Unit 18, which corresponds to the very end of four years of French language study.

It is unclear, in the absence of empirical research, to establish the extent to which these courses proved more motivating than the traditional grammar-based courses that preceded them. Nevertheless, informal discussion with teachers of French in Strathclyde, and the author's own language teaching experience, suggest that the introduction of communicative language courses and (perhaps more importantly) communicative teaching methodology, in the late 1970s and early 1980s, engendered among school language learners of all abilities a substantially more positive attitude

towards learning French.

2.2.4 Implications of the Munn and Dunning Reports

In 1977 two very important and influential reports on Scottish education were published: *The Structure of the Curriculum in the Third and Fourth Years of the Secondary School*, otherwise known as the Munn Report (SED, 1977a); and *Assessment for All. Report of the Committee to Review Assessment in the Third and Fourth years of Secondary Education in Scotland* - the Dunning Report (SED, 1977b). Between them, these two reports caused modern language teachers in Scotland to turn firmly away from traditional structural teaching methods towards communicative language teaching methodology.

(i) The Munn Report on Curriculum

The remit of the Munn committee was

> to consider how the curriculum at S3 and S4 should be structured in order to ensure that all pupils receive a balanced education suitable to their needs and abilities
>
> (SED 1977a: 9)

In considering the role of modern languages in a balanced curriculum which would "prepare the pupil for life in a modern industrialised society", the Munn committee recognised that the study of a language was valuable:

1. for the insights it can give into another culture
2. as an ancillary skill in a variety of occupations
3. as a tool for the study of other disciplines

Nevertheless, they felt that there was no reason to insist on the compulsory study of a foreign language for all learners beyond S2.[3] The main reason given for this decision was the fact that, at

[3] The decision to relegate modern languages to the elective area of the school curriculum has recently (1989) been overturned. By 1992 all secondary school pupils in Scotland will study a foreign language for four years.

the time of the report,

> . . .the materials and methodology of language teaching for less able pupils have not yet been developed to a point where language learning can readily take place.
>
> SED 1977: 24

The relegation of Modern languages to the elective part of the school curriculum had its costs. The Dunning committee (SED, 1977b: 79) stated that to achieve an award at Standard Grade (the new examination designed to replace the "Ordinary" Grade examination), pupils would be obliged to study each subject for at least four periods in a forty period week. Thirty-two periods were already allocated to the core curriculum, so only two subjects from the elective area could be chosen. With the large number of elective subjects on offer, modern language departments would be obliged to compete with other subject departments for their S3 pupils. Moreover, falling roles meant that there were fewer pupils than ever before to share among all subject departments. Consequently, it became of the utmost importance that the study of languages should appear an attractive option for learners. The need for a motivating language teaching methodology had never been greater.

(ii) The Dunning Report

If the status quo with respect to assessment had remained unchanged it is possible that the communicative approach would not have made much impact in Scotland. With the emphasis of the Ordinary Grade syllabus on written accuracy, teachers might have opted to continue to implement what they saw as the best techniques of communicative language teaching, while continuing to follow a structural syllabus. However, the revision of the Scottish examination system in response to the findings of the Dunning Committee made such a course of action impossible.

The remit of the Dunning committee was to examine the existing provisions for secondary school assessment at third and fourth years, and to establish whether or not revision was necessary.

Focusing on the Scottish Certificate of Education Ordinary Grade examination, normally taken in the pupils' fourth year of compulsory secondary schooling, they established that there was considerable evidence of over-presentation. In 1976, 76% of pupils who were presented for one or two "O" grades, and 40% of those presented for three or four, failed to gain a single award at grades A to C. In fact only 11% of those presented for three or four "O" grades obtained at least three awards at bands A to C.[4]

The Dunning committee, accepting that there was pressure on teachers both from the pupils and their parents for the opportunity to try for "O" grade passes, undertook to devise a system of assessment for all. This system of Standard Grade Examinations was to work at three levels of achievement, Credit, General and Foundation, where pupils gaining an award at Credit would be expected to be capable of gaining at least a band C at Higher grade in S5, while pupils at Foundation level would correspond to those who would previously have left school with no certification at all.

2.2.5 Objectives of the Standard Grade Examination in French

The Standard grade system having been designed, Joint Working Parties (JWPs) were set up in all subject areas to design appropriate syllabuses, and to flesh out the model system with subject-specific Grade Related Criteria (see Appendix A for details of the assessment arrangements and summary GRC for French). Recognising that most teachers were already trying to implement communicative language teaching methodology in their classrooms, the Joint Working Party for French designed a syllabus and an examination which

> have, as their primary objective, the development of communicative competence and confidence among the pupils. By this is meant the promotion of real language in real use, enabling the language learner above all to speak, listen and read in real-life situations.
>
> Scottish Examination Board (1984).

---

[4] Although the "O" grade award scale ranged from A to E, only grades A to C were recognised as "passes" in the examination.

2.2.6 Teaching Methodology for the Standard Grade

The teaching methodology prescribed by the Joint Working Party for the S-grade was the communicative approach. The strategies proposed in their report (SEB, 1984) which are most relevant to this study are summarised below:

(a) The principal aim is to engage the interest and involvement of the pupils. To achieve this the objectives of the course should be clear to the learners, and these objectives should (as far as possible) be based on the learners' interests and needs.

(b) The teaching syllabus must include an assessment syllabus since internal assessment is an integral part of the standard grade. However it is important that this syllabus should not be seen as a strait-jacket, but rather a base on which to build.

(c) The classroom should become a place where communication is encouraged. Gone are the days of the silent class at work.

(d) The methodology should be based on interaction and participation. The teacher is to be seen as an "enabler, a manager of resources, as an agent to assist in the achievement of the desired educational outcomes."

(e) Errors should be seen as an inevitable part of learning a language, and that over-eagerness to correct them may in fact serve as a disincentive to the learner to use the foreign language. This does not mean that the teacher should not aim for a minimum of errors in the learner's language, but rather that he should recognise that overemphasis on errors may be counterproductive.

(f) Paired and group activities involving communicative tasks should become a normal part of classroom activities

throughout all four years of language learning . This is not to say that there is no longer a place in the language classroom for purely practice language.

(g) The foreign language should be used for dealing with classroom management. Foreign language communication should not be one-way only. Pupils should also be encouraged to use the foreign language to communicate their needs.

(h) Co-operative teaching might usefully be employed to facilitate group work and individualisation of activities.

(i) Traditional teaching methodology should not be abandoned. Pronunciation and intonation should continue to receive attention, but in response to immediate needs rather than as an end in itself. Judicious use of repetition and learning by heart might also form part of teaching strategies.

2.3 Research Context: French Teaching in Strathclyde

The previous sections of this chapter describe teaching modern languages in the general context of Scotland. Here the focus is on modern language teaching in Strathclyde, which is the specific context for the study described in this thesis. Strathclyde, which is the largest of the Scottish regions containing almost half of the country's population of four million, is divided into 6 divisions: Lanark, Glasgow, Dumbarton, Renfrew, Ayr, Argyll and Bute. The divisions which are relevant to this study are Lanark, Dumbarton and Glasgow which together account for about half the population of Strathclyde. The statistics given in this chapter come from survey data gathered for this study during the academic session 1987-88. Sixty-four Strathclyde schools and 201 teachers of French are represented in these findings.

2.3.1 Nature of Schools in the Study

Secondary schools in Strathclyde are segregated on the basis of religion. Two types of school exist: Roman Catholic and non-denominational. One third of the surveyed schools were Roman Catholic. At the time of the survey, Strathclyde secondary schools offered one foreign language, usually French, to all pupils in in first (S1) and second (S2) year. Foreign language study was optional from S3. On average, pupils in the surveyed schools received three 58 minutes periods of French per week in the first two years of language study, and four periods in S3 and S4.

Although it is the regional policy of Strathclyde to organise pupils in their schools according to a system of mixed ability, this mode of organisation was shown to be more common in the surveyed schools in first and in second years than later. Mixed ability classes were less common in S3 and S4 presumably to facilitate teaching for the SCE Ordinary Grade Examination. While a small number of schools were planning to present a few fourth year pupils for the Standard Grade Examination in 1988, by far the most common year for starting to present was 1990. Three departments were undecided while a further five did not plan to present their pupils for Standard Grade until 1991 when the SCE "O" grade examination will cease to exist.

All schools in the survey were operating a communicative teaching methodology in S1 and S2. By far the most commonly used French course in the sample schools was *Tour de France* (SCCML, 1982). 61% of all schools used it either alone or in combination with another course such as *Eclair* (Mary Glasgow, 1979) or *Action* (Buckby, 1980). *Action* and *Eclair* (both alone and in combination with other courses) each accounted for a further 33% of schools. *Tour de France* was used in all schools in the observation study.

2.4 Research Design and Methodology

2.4.0 Research Design

In order to answer the two research questions posed in section 2.0

above, it was decided to collect data in two ways: by mail-administered survey and with a small-scale observation study.

Two surveys were designed: the Principal Teacher's Questionnaire (PTQ) and the Co-operative Teaching Survey (CTS). The Principal Teacher's Questionnaire was designed to elicit information about the organisation and teaching methodology of modern language departments in Glasgow Lanark and Dumbarton; to identify departments that might be prepared to take part in an observation study; and to provide a mailing list for the second survey.[5]

The Co-operative Teaching Survey was designed to identify teachers' attitudes towards using the target language to fulfill certain classroom management tasks, and to provide information about the organisation and perceived importance of co-operative teaching particularly with respect to its effect on the use of the target language. Biographical information about the respondents (for example sex, age, qualifications and so on) was also solicited, so that an attempt could be made to identify the characteristics of teachers who had a positive attitude towards the use of the target language.

The observation study was designed to supplement the findings of the surveys by providing data about teachers' actual behaviour.[6] However, since the number of teachers who took part in the study was very small (eight teachers in three schools), and the sample was not randomly selected, it is impossible to make generalisations about the findings to the whole population. The observation study should be viewed as a case-study which might provide insights into

[5] At the time of the study, the administration of Strathclyde Regional Council department of Education was not computerised. It was, therefore, impossible to access a list of names and addresses of teachers of French in Glasgow, Lanark, and Dumbarton.

[6] Although this thesis focuses on only one small part of the French language classroom, namely quantity and quality of teachers' target language, the data collection and analysis instruments were designed to give as complete as possible a picture of the use of the target language, and the implementation and advantages of co-operative teaching. Consequently, the two questionnaires (Appendix B), and the Co-operative Teaching Analysis System (described in chapter 3 and in Appendix C provide more data than is discussed in the thesis.

the effects of co-operative teaching in the language classroom.

Four questions were addressed:

(a) to what extent (if any) does teachers' classroom behaviour accord with their stated attitudes towards the use of the target language.

(b) to what extent (if any) does teaching with a second fluent target language speaker (a co-operative teacher) increase the quantity of "communicative" target language used by the teacher(s)?

(c) to what extent (if any) does teaching with a second fluent target language speaker (a co-operative teacher) improve the quality of the teachers' "communicative" target language.

(d) what lessons (if any) can be learned about preconditions for effective co-operative teaching?

2.4.1 Methodology: The Surveys

(i) Samples

In the winter of 1987-88, the Principal Teachers' Questionnaire was sent to 70 principal teachers (heads of departments) of modern languages. It had been hoped to be able to contact only those schools which were currently implementing (or which had in the past implemented) co-operative teaching. Since no data on co-operative teaching was available for Glasgow, the Principal Teacher's Questionnaire was mailed to all 55 schools in the city. The 6 Dumbarton and 9 Lanark schools, however, were chosen by the modern language advisers of these divisions on the grounds that they were known to be conducting co-operative teaching during academic session 1987-88. Sixty-seven principal teachers (department heads) responded to the PTQ. The three schools which declined to take part in the survey were all in Glasgow.

Each principal teacher supplied a nominal list of all teachers of French in his department, to whom the Co-operative Teaching Survey was subsequently mailed. Of 270 recipients of the CTS, 201 responded: 33 in Lanark, 28 in Dumbarton and 140 in Glasgow. In total, 184 teachers had first-hand experience of co-operative teaching.

(ii) Survey Piloting and Revision

Both questionnaires were piloted in Lanark then revised and submitted to the schools in the other two regions. Findings for questions which were adopted unchanged from the pilot versions of the surveys include responses from teachers in all three divisions . Findings from questions which were added or altered represent responses from teachers in Dumbarton and Glasgow only (N= 168). The reduced N is noted in the relevant tables.

(iii) Data Analysis

Survey data analysis was performed by computer.[7] Details of the specific statistical procedures employed in the study are given in the relevant findings chapters in part two.

(iv) Problems of Interpreting Survey Data

Much of the data (discussed in part two) which comes from the the Co-operative Teaching Survey is based on attitudinal rather than factual questions. Interpretation of attitudinal data is fraught with difficulties because they do not tell us anything about the respondent's behaviour; they tell us only about his beliefs. Both closed and open questions are problematic in this respect. Closed questions, by their very nature, supply the respondent with a list of options to choose from, some of which he may not have thought of before. Consequently, he might judge something to be very important without having had any first-hand experience of it. Many of the

[7] The data analysis for the two questionnaires was performed on an Apple Macintosh personal computer, and on a Vax mainframe computer using two software packages: "MacSurvey" (Franklin, 1988) which was designed specifically for this project, and SCSS (Nie, Hull, Franklin et al., 1980).

questions in the Co-operative Teaching Survey were presented in this closed format. It could be argued that it would have been more informative to have asked teachers, in open questions, to state whether or not they taught through the medium of the target language, which activities they found most difficult to perform in French, what reasons they had for not maintaining the use of French, how they operated co-operative teaching, and so on. However, given the length of the survey (12 pages), it was felt that teachers might not be prepared to fill in the required information, and since it is impossible to judge why respondents choose not to complete the open section of a question, it is very difficult to draw any conclusions as to the generalisability of opinions given by those who do. This judgment appears to have been justified. Open questions in both surveys were seldom completed by more than a handful of teachers.

2.4.2 Methodology: The Observation Study

(i) Sample

Three schools, and eight non-native teachers of French took part in the observation study. As stated above, the sample was not randomly selected. Instead, participating schools were selected from among those whose principal teachers (in response to the Principal Teachers' questionnaire) had expressed an interest in being involved in in-school research. To control for as many intervening variables as possible, the schools were chosen because of their similarity. They were all non-denominational suburban Glasgow schools operating a system of mixed ability with their classes in first year. All three departments used *Tour de France* (SCCML, 1981) as their French course, and all had co-operative teaching with at least three classes in S1.

Teachers were chosen in Cooper High by the Principal Teacher but in other schools according to the convenience of the timetable.[8]

[8] To protect the identity of the teachers involved in the study, school names are fictitious. Teachers are identified by a letter prefix (which corresponds to the name of the school in which they taught) and a number. Teachers C1, B1, and P1 are all

Ideally teachers should have been carefully chosen to exclude those who had stated in their questionnaire that they were afraid of being observed. Unfortunately, this information was received too late to affect the selection process. Only one teacher (C2) was in this position although a second (P2) stated in interview that she did not like having anyone else in her classroom. However, there was no indication during the observations that any teacher resented the presence of the observer (who was personally known to a number of them), and although at the outset they clearly felt uncomfortable wearing a Sony Walkman on their belts and a microphone on their lapels, even this intrusion appeared soon to be forgotten.

(ii) Frequency of Observations

The original intention was to observe three teachers in each school on four separate occasions, twice with and twice without co-operative teaching. This plan had to be modified because of a number of practical problems which emerged both before and during the study: timetabling restrictions within the schools, difficulties of finding a time for the study which was convenient both for the teachers and the researcher, unexpected holidays and school outings (a local election, and a trip to the Glasgow Garden Festival disrupted the observation schedule at Baird Academy), hardware failure (faulty cassette recorder and tapes), and finally the absence of the Foreign Language Assistant (the co-operative teacher) at one of the scheduled co-operative teaching lessons which resulted in teacher C2 being observed teaching co-operatively only once. Two teachers were observed in each of Cooper High and Porter Secondary, and four teachers in Baird Academy.

Table 2.1 shows the exact breakdown of the lessons observed, and the identity of the co-operative teacher. In all, twenty-seven hours of lessons were observed. Five of the 8 teachers were observed both as class teachers and as co-operative teachers in other classrooms.

Principal Teachers of Modern Languages.

Table 2.1 Schedule of Observations

n/a = not applicable

No CT = no co-operative teacher present
CT= co-operative teacher present

TEACHER	CT 1	CT2	No CT 1	No CT 2
C1 (main teacher)	√	√	√	√
C2 (main teacher)	√	no observation	√	√
B1 (main teacher)	√	√	√	√
B1 (co-operative teacher to B2)	√	√	not applicable	
B2 (main teacher)	√	√	√	√
B3 (main teacher)	√	no observation	√	no observation
B3 (co-operative teacher to B1)	√	√	not applicable	
B3 (co-operative teacher to B4)	√	no observation	n/a	no observation
B4 (main teacher)	√	no observation	√	no observation
B4 (co-operative teacher to B3)	√	no observation	n/a	no observation
P1 (main teacher)	√	√	√	√
P1 (co-operative teacher to P2)	√	√	not applicable	
P2 (main teacher)	√	√	√	√
P2 (co-operative teacher to P1)	√	√	not applicable	

Teachers in Cooper High School were observed teaching co-operatively with a foreign language assistant (FLA), who was a native speaker of French, while teachers in the other two schools were observed with departmental colleagues (non-native speakers).

Co-operative teaching in Porter Secondary was organised so that the co-operative teacher was present for the first 30 minutes of the lesson only. Unless marked otherwise, all tables which show choice of language and quantity of French in co-operatively taught lessons in Porter Secondary display data calculated as proportions of the co-operatively taught portion of the lessons only.

(iii) Data Collection

Three techniques of data collection and analysis were employed in the co-operative teaching observation study: non-participant

observation, interaction analysis, and interviews. The justification for choosing non-participant rather than participant observation, and the advantages and disadvantages of interaction analysis, are discussed at length in chapter 3 which also presents The Co-operative Teaching Analysis System which was designed for this study.

The same procedure was undertaken for every teacher. Firstly, each lesson was observed by the researcher and copious notes were taken. Secondly the teachers' discourse in the lesson was audio-recorded , transcribed, and analysed using the the Co-Operative Teaching Analysis System.[9] Thirdly, each teacher was interviewed in depth. Random samples of pupils from each observed class were also interviewed. The interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed.

(iv) Data Analysis: Quantity of Teacher Target Language Discourse[10]
So that exact quantities of French and English discourse in co-operatively and non-co-operatively taught lessons could be calculated and compared, the relative amounts of French and English for management purposes in the observed lessons were timed using a computer program specifically designed for this study (Franklin, 1989). By holding down different keys on the computer keyboard it was possible to differentiate, within pre-determined segments of the lesson, three types of discourse: (1) French for classroom management purposes, (2) English, and (3) all other discourse and/or silence.[11] Exact proportions of French and English for management purposes which occurred in each lesson were then calculated and compared.

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[9] The discourse of the foreign language assistant (a native speaker of French), who was the co-operative teacher in Cooper high School, was not recorded . Since the study concerned the effect of co-operative teaching on the foreign language discourse of **non-native** French teachers, the discourse of a native speaker was of no interest.

[10] The data analysis methodology used to compare teachers' classroom behaviour with their attitudes towards the use of the target language is discussed in chapter 6.

[11] French for non-management purposes, as in a language drill (e.g. Qu'est-ce que tu veux manger? Moi je voudrais une pomme") were categorised as type 3.

(v) Data Analysis: Quality of Teacher Discourse

Four lessons only were analysed for quality of teacher discourse. The four lessons chosen were those of teacher B2 teaching both alone and co-operatively with B1 in Baird Academy. There were three reasons for choosing this particular set of lessons.

Firstly, there was insufficient data for other co-operating pairs. There was no tape-recording of the Foreign Language Assistant in Cooper High School, so her utterances could not be analysed; teachers B3 and B4 were each observed twice only; and co-operative teaching in Porter Secondary took place for only half of the lesson. Secondly, teachers B1 and B2 were the only ones who chatted to each other systematically in the foreign language, so it was possible that an analysis would show that their discourse included language that went beyond syllabus speak. Thirdly, teacher B1 spoke very little English when co-operatively teaching with B2 (an average of 10% of management language over two lessons) so the combined quantity of French for the two teachers was likely to be considerable.

Quality of language was analysed by focusing on the verb systems used by the main classroom teacher and his/her co-operative teacher. This methodology was chosen in part because it had been implemented by Mitchell and Johnstone (1986) in very similar circumstances to the present study, and so a comparison between the two studies could be made (see chapter 7, section 7.6.4), and in part because it was felt that an analysis of verb forms would reveal more variation than an analysis of lexis. However, in an in-depth study of quality of language across a larger sample of lessons both analyses would be appropriate.

To analyse the verb system in the four sample lessons, every instance of a verb uttered by either teacher was noted (using a computer outline processor) both in its infinitive form and in the form it was used in the discourse. Where the verb was uttered by the co-operative teacher rather than the class teacher (and vice versa) this was also noted.

The findings of the analysis of quality of target language in two teaching contexts are discussed in chapter 7 where it is pointed out that, given the small sample of lessons, the analysis should be considered as a pilot case-study only. To generalise from the findings, a larger corpus of lessons from a wide variety of teachers would have to be analysed.

2.5 Summary

In this chapter, the context of the Co-operative Teaching Study and the choice of research methodology used to provide and analyse the data have been discussed. Two methods of data collection were employed: two surveys administered by mail to teachers of French at 67 Strathclyde secondary schools, and a small scale observation study involving three Glasgow schools and eight teachers of French. The post-hoc analysis of the observation study data was performed with the help of field notes taken during the lessons, and with a systematic interaction analysis coding system (the Co-operative Teaching Analysis System) which is described in chapter 3. Survey and observation study findings are discussed in part two of the thesis.

Chapter 3
Observation Study: Analysis Instruments

3.0 Introduction

It is often stated in language teaching research literature (Delamont,1976; Delamont and Hamilton, 1976; McIntyre and MacLeod,1978; Walker and Adelman, 1976) that in order to avoid producing only a partial picture of classroom interaction, and to learn as much as is possible about what is going on, it is important to combine different methods of data collection. In consequence, most researchers choose to combine extensive note-taking in real-time in the form of *non-participant observation*, with a post-hoc analysis of an audio or video recording using some sort of *interaction analysis* coding system. In this study, it was important not only to be able to quantify certain classroom behaviours (for example, the frequency of different aspects of classroom management performed in French and English), but also to be able to describe the relative contributions to the lesson made by each co-operative teacher. A combination of non-participant observation and interaction analysis was chosen. In this chapter, the justification for this choice is discussed. In addition, the interaction analysis instrument used to code and analyse the lesson transcripts, the Co-operative Teaching Analysis System, is described in detail.

3.1 Non-participant Observation

Non-participant observation may be contrasted with participant observation where the observer, or ethnographer, becomes part of the scene, talking to and participating with the people he/she is observing.[1] This type of observation is common with case studies of one classroom over a fairly long period of time. The non-participant observer, on the other hand, attempts to be "a fly on the wall" observing from the back of the classroom and taking notes

[1] Participant and non-participant observation are two aspects of what is known variously as "the anthropological approach", or "ethnography".

which are analysed after the lesson is over. He may also supplement his data with interviews and questionnaires.

While it is unrealistic to suppose that it is ever possible for the classroom observer to have no effect on classroom procedure, it was nevertheless essential that in this study the observer should not only remain as uninvolved and objective as possible, but should also have minimal effect on what was happening. Non-participant observation was therefore chosen to provide an opportunity for the observer to take notes on classroom interaction. The problem of observer effect on classroom interaction is discussed below.

There is one major reason why it would have been inappropriate to implement non-participant observation as the sole method of observation analysis in this study. Since it was essential that quantifiable data be available for analysis, it was important to find a method of categorising and coding certain types of classroom discourse and language activities. Systematic Interaction Analysis provided this method.

3.2 Systematic Interaction Analysis

3.2.0 Introduction

McIntyre and McLeod (1978:111) define Systematic Interaction Analysis as a set of

> ... procedures in which the observer, deliberately refraining from participating in classroom activities, analyses aspects of these activities through the use of a predetermined set of categories and signs.

There seems to be some disagreement in the literature as to the exact definition of different types of interaction analysis systems. Long (1983) identifies three types of system: sign, category and rating scale. Researchers using a sign system will code classroom events once only during a predetermined period of time, commonly ranging from three seconds to one minute, however often they occur.

With a true category system, events or activities are coded each time they occur, while with a rating scale the frequency of a given event or activity is recorded on a scale (often of seven points) ranging from high to low, or very often to rarely. McIntyre's definition of category systems focuses on how classroom events are categorised rather than the frequency of coding. According to his definition, category systems are

> ... ones in which a particular facet of classroom activity is described in terms of units of some kind, and then each of these units is allocated to one of a number of activities ... [while other systems] ... record only events which are believed to be of a particularly significant kind.
>
> McIntyre (n.d: 9)

At first sight, McIntyre's and Long's definitions are quite compatible, but problems arise when one tries to apply them to existing observation schemes. The Stirling Lesson Analysis System (on which the Co-operative Teaching Analysis System is based) is, according to Long's definition, a sign system in that it clearly divides classroom discourse into segments of a minimum length of 30 seconds; yet in terms of Mcintyre's definition it is equally clearly a category system in that each segment of discourse is defined in terms of five dimensions, which are themselves subdivided into smaller categories.

A less contentious distinction between types of interaction analysis schemes concerns the way in which they are applied to the lesson. Some interaction analysis observation systems are simple enough to use during the lesson while others, like the complex Stirling System, or the Co-operative Teaching Analysis System designed for this study, are more appropriate for a post-hoc analysis of lesson transcripts or of audio or video recordings. In this study audio recordings were used.

3.2.1 Advantages of Interaction Analysis Systems

(i) Pre-determined set of categories

One of the major advantages of interaction analysis systems is the fact that the observer has a predetermined set of categories with which to test his hypothesis, and so should not be able to interpret the data in such a way as to make it fit the hypothesis. Not all researchers would agree that this pre-definition of categories is an advantage, arguing that since the categories are merely a reflection of the researchers' prejudices about language teaching, the validity of the findings is vitiated (Bailey 1975; Mitchell et al 1981; Schumann 1982; Gaies 1983). However, this argument is spurious, provided that these so-called "prejudices" are preconceptions which are grounded in second language acquisition theory and research. The Co-operative Teaching Observation Study aims to identify certain classroom behaviours (quantity and quality of teachers' foreign language discourse) which have been shown by language learning researchers to be desirable (see chapter 1).

(ii) Quantifiable Data

A second advantage of systematic interaction analysis is the fact that such systems can supply quantifiable data for statistical analysis. As McIntyre and Mcleod (1978) point out, most studies, even those which use an ethnographic approach to data collection, aim to identify patterns of behaviour. The interaction analysis approach, however, allows the researcher a more precise way of quantifying his data, and therefore a more reliable means of testing his hypothesis. It may then be possible, given a large enough sample, to test the generalisability of the hypothesis across the range of cases. Quantification is a necessary part of the Co-operative Teaching Observation Study, but (given that the sample was not randomly chosen) generalisations about what happens in French classrooms throughout Scotland, or even Strathclyde region would be inappropriate.

3.2.2 Criticisms of Interaction Analysis

(i) Superficiality of Analysis

One of the major criticisms of systematic observation systems is the fact that they "provide a means of analyzing 'simple' phenomena without delving into their real significance" (Clift and Cyster, 1976). However, it is surely unreasonable to blame systems for failing to solve problems for which they were not designed. McIntyre and Mcleod (1978) point out that although Flanders' (1970) simple ten category FIAC system is often blamed for having only two categories for pupil language, thus making it impossible to study pupils' language in depth, this was not the purpose of the system. Flanders was interested in identifying instances of pupil-initiated ideas in classroom discourse, and for this his system is perfectly adequate.

Unless a researcher plans to duplicate a study in every respect, he must be prepared to custom-build his own interaction analysis system since it is unlikely that an existing one can be used without modification. Interaction analysis systems can be as complex as the researcher requires, but how complex they need to be depends on what hypotheses are being tested. The Co-operative Teaching Analysis System used in this thesis deviates quite substantially in format from the Stirling System on which it is based.

(ii) Partial Picture of Classroom Behaviour

A further criticism is that interaction analysis can supply only a partial picture of what is going on in the classroom, but this criticism can also be made of other methods of observation analysis. All investigations of classroom behaviour identify a small number of factors to study. They cannot encompass "the world". The ethnographer, for example, by taking notes on what he considers important, must also produce a partial description. Furthermore, as McIntyre and MacLeod (1978) point out, by pre-defining his categories

> the competent systematic observer can be confident that he

has decided what information he wants to collect and that he has not neglected any of this information.

McIntyre and MacLeod (1978: 114)

It was precisely in order to minimise the problem of painting only a partial picture of the lessons observed in the Co-operative Teaching Study that a number of different methods of data collection and analysis were used. Firstly, the Co-operative Teaching Survey, which was completed by all teachers in the observation study, was used to provide information about what might be expected to happen in the observed teachers' classrooms, and secondly non-participant observation was combined with systematic interaction analysis to establish to what extent the teachers' claims and opinions were supported by their actual teaching behaviour. Thirdly ,all teachers in the study and small random samples of pupils from each class were interviewed. Even then it is inevitable that the data are incomplete.

3.2.3 Problems of Reliability

(i) Practical Problems of Implementing the Coding System

Perhaps the most serious criticism of interaction analysis is the fact that, because it is extremely difficult to implement (Bailey, 1975), it may not be a reliable means of analysis. Bailey points out that the need simultaneously to observe the lesson, consult a stop watch so as to be able to record the data every three seconds, and then to categorise and code the behaviour of the participants, is logistically extremely difficult; and likely to lack accuracy, and so would be extremely hard to replicate. This criticism relates only to real-time coding. Provided that the researcher is thoroughly familiar with the system he is using, post-hoc coding such as is employed in this study may avoid many , although not necessarily all, of these problems. It is possible, for example, that a repeat coding at a later date would produce different results.

An attempt to overcome this problem was made by piloting the Co-operative Teaching Analysis System with a small number of

transcripts. Although the exact degree of equivalence between codings was not measured quantitatively, when the coding system was applied to the same transcripts on different occasions a high degree of consistency was found to exist. A high degree of equivalence was also found between different timings of quantity of French and English for management purposes (see Appendix H).

(ii) Participants' Understanding of Classroom Events

An important question, which must be addressed in any discussion of problems of validity and reliability, is whether or not the classroom observer in setting up his observation system needs to take account of the participants interpretation of what is going on in the classroom. Nash (1976) says that the "... destruction of subjective meaning by objective analysis systems must be considered the crucial objection to their use ..." This criticism is particularly valid where observers are obliged to infer participants' reasons for doing something in the classroom. Mitchell, Parkinson and Johnstone (1981), focusing on the FLint system (Moskowitz, 1971) single out the problem of categorising the utterance of a teacher who repeats verbatim the words of his pupil. Within the FLint system this could be categorised as Teacher Talk: category 3a: "Repeats Student Response Verbatim", or category 2: "Praises or Encourages", or even 7a: "Criticizes Student Response". The problem here is two-fold. Firstly, the categories are not mutually exclusive — this is a design fault in the observation system; but secondly, and more importantly, it will never be possible for the observer to be absolutely sure why the teacher says what he does. This is true of all observation studies irrespective of the methodology employed. Even were the researcher to employ the technique of stimulated recall and ask the teacher after the lesson why he did or said a certain thing, there is no way of being absolutely sure that the teacher's response would correspond to his original intention.

Fortunately, the Co-operative Teaching Observation Study is concerned primarily with the quantification of teacher foreign language discourse and behaviour rather than with the

interpretation of teachers' motives for conducting the lesson in a particular manner. Nevertheless, it is impossible for the researcher to avoid making subjective judgements as to how to categorise the teachers' utterances. This problem is particularly important in large-scale studies where large numbers of researchers are involved in coding the lessons, but also exists when all lessons are coded by the same person, as in this study.

(iii) Effect of the Observer on Participant Behaviour

A further problem of validity, which is important in all observation studies, is that of the potential influence the observer might have on class activities. The observer has no real control over this, but may attempt to mitigate his effect by ensuring that both teachers and pupils recognise that he has a legitimate and non-threatening purpose for being in the classroom.

All teachers in the co-operative teaching project were interviewed informally by the observer before the observations took place, and were given a full explanation of the purpose of the study and an assurance of the anonymity of the findings. They were told that the observer (who was personally known to a number of the teachers being observed) was interested, firstly, in the problems of implementing a communicative methodology in the context of secondary school French classrooms and, secondly, in the effect of co-operative teaching on classroom activities. The question of whether teachers spoke more French in the co-operative teaching setting was not raised by the researcher in the interviews, although at least one of the teachers guessed that this was one of the issues under consideration.

Familiarity, is also very important. Once the presence of the observer is accepted by teacher and pupils as routine and ordinary, it is unlikely that he will have any effect on classroom behaviour. This is most likely to happen in longitudinal studies when the observer is present for months rather than hours.

McIntyre (n.d.), however, maintains that where teachers do vary their normal pattern of classroom behaviour in the presence of an observer, they are unlikely to be able to sustain the change for more than one or two occasions. Six of the nine teachers in the Co-operative Teaching Observation Study were each observed on four different occasions for an hour at a time; the remaining three were observed two or three times each. Since the observations occurred over a relatively short time span, ranging from one to two weeks, it seems unlikely that the teachers would be able to sustain major changes in teaching behaviour throughout the entire period of observation. Moreover, the pupils of teachers speaking more French than usual for the benefit of the observer would have been likely to react with total incomprehension if they had been unaccustomed to being taught in this manner. While individual pupils in the observed lessons clearly experienced difficulties in understanding complex instructions given to them in French, they appeared nevertheless to be accustomed to being addressed in the foreign language. The statistical analysis employed to compare relative amounts of target language in the two teaching contexts, with and without a co-operative teacher, takes the order of lessons into account.

3.3 The Co-operative Teaching Analysis System

3.3.0 Introduction

The starting point for the creation of an interaction analysis system for the Co-operative Teaching Study was the Stirling Lesson Analysis System (Mitchell, Parkinson and Johnstone 1981) which was designed to analyse communicative interaction in Scottish secondary school foreign language classrooms. In designing the Co-operative Teaching Analysis System (COPTAS), however, the Stirling system was extensively modified because it lacked certain of the requirements for this study.

Firstly, the Stirling system was designed to analyse classroom interaction where the predominant teaching methodology was audio-visual whereas the methodology in the Co-operative Teaching Study

was communicative language teaching; consequently, the Stirling system had no provision for coding certain communicative classroom activities. Secondly, the emphasis of the Stirling system was on language activities, and although it would have been possible to code instances of "real communication" in French, and instances of English-medium discourse, the system was not designed to analyse teachers language in depth. Thirdly, the Stirling system was not designed to analyse co-operatively taught lessons, so there was no mechanism for analysing the discourse of two teachers working together in the same classroom.[2]

3.3.1 Units of Analysis

(i) Segments and Moves

The Co-operative Teaching Analysis System has six dimensions (each of which is divided into a number of categories) upon which teacher discourse can be coded. The dimensions, which are discussed at length below and in Appendix C, are:

(1) Teacher Mode of Involvement
(2) Class Grouping
(3) Activity/Topic of Discourse
(4) Stimulus
(5) Pupil Mode of Involvement
(6) Teacher Language

In order to apply the dimensions to the lesson transcripts, it is necessary to divide the teachers' discourse into sections. In this study, a two-tier system of analysis of discourse was adopted. When the focus of attention was on the learners (how they were grouped, the kind of language activity they were engaged in, and the teachers' involvement in the activities) the unit of analysis was the 'segment' which was limited to sections of discourse which lasted more than thirty seconds. The segment is defined as

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[2] Appendix D contains the coding categories (with simplified definitions) of the Stirling Lesson Analysis System, a full specification of which is presented in Stirling Educational Monograph no 9 (Mitchell, Parkinson and Johnstone, 1981: 74-95).

> ... a stretch of lesson discourse, having a particular topic, and involving the participants (teacher and pupils) in a distinctive configuration of roles, linguistic and organisational.
>
> Mitchell et al, 1981:12

Since the major concern of this study was to identify the teacher's choice of language (English or French) for classroom management purposes, utterances which lasted less than thirty seconds had to be taken into account. When a teacher breaks from French into English (or vice versa) to ask a child to be quiet, his remark might last as little as three seconds. If the only unit of analysis were the segment, such an utterance would be ignored on the grounds that it was shorter than the thirty second minimum segment length. Coding lessons in this way would suggest that the amount of English or French used in class was less than it actually was. Mitchell et al. (1981) recognise this drawback of the thirty second segment, which is the only unit of analysis employed in their study. They point out that to advance our understanding of issues such as the variation between the use of the mother tongue and the target language and the communicative use of the foreign language in the classroom, a more detailed analysis would be necessary than is possible when focusing on relatively large segments of classroom discourse. In the Co-operative Teaching Analysis System, therefore, although the *segment* remained the basic unit of analysis, individual *moves* or *exchanges* within a segment might be separately coded. In this context a "move" corresponded to one utterance by the teacher, for example "sit down", and an "exchange" involved, for example, an initiation by a teacher, followed by a student response, and then feedback from the teacher to the student (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975).

(ii) Identifying Segments and Moves

In accordance with the Stirling System, a small number of guidelines were used in COPTAS to identify boundaries between segments and moves. The first segment (or move/exchange) in a lesson begins at the point at which the teacher makes his first public utterance, or alternatively at the point at which the

recording begins, if this latter happens to be later than the teacher's first words. Thereafter, segments (which are numbered consecutively) are identified by teacher "moves" which create expectations about the type of discourse which is to follow[3]. If these expectations are fulfilled , a new segment can be coded in terms of the six dimensions listed above. A change in any one dimension constitutes a new segment or move. Some candidate segments, however, may not be separately coded if "the public expectations regarding the discourse currently in force have merely been suspended, rather than definitely cancelled" (Mitchell et al, 1981:77). Examples of this would typically be occasions where the teacher interjects an English word such as "right" into a segment of classroom management discourse which was otherwise conducted entirely in French.

3.3.2 Coding Dimensions

Although the Co-operative Teaching Analysis System has six dimensions upon which segments moves and exchanges can be coded, only dimensions three (Activity/Topic of discourse) and six (Teacher Language) are strictly relevant to the analysis of quantity and quality of teacher discourse employed in this study so, in the interest of brevity, those two dimensions alone are described in this chapter. The nature of and the justification for the remaining four dimensions (Teacher mode of Involvement, Class grouping, Stimulus, and Pupil Mode of Involvement) are discussed in Appendix C. Among other things, these dimensions provided data on how co-operative teaching was implemented in the classes observed.

3.3.3 Dimension 3: Activity/Topic of Discourse

(i) Introduction

Dimension 3 combines the discourse of classroom management

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[3] Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) mention two types of "move" which create expectations about the type of discourse. These are: "framing moves" which constitute utterances such as "Right", "Now", "Okay"(which are used to indicate that one stage of the lesson has ended and another is about to begin) and "focusing moves" which either sum up an activity or launch a new one.

(such as taking the class roll, or disciplining the pupils), and the discourse of language practice (for example, linguistic prompts such as "qu'est-ce que c'est?") in a single dimension. This had the advantage of supplying information not only about what the teachers were talking about, but also about the type of activity that the learners were engaged in. Since, it would require more space than is available in a thesis which concentrates on teacher target language discourse, the nature of the tasks assigned the learners in the observed lessons is not dealt with in the findings chapters. The data is, however, available for future analysis and discussion.

(ii) Piloting and Revision

Two versions of dimension three were employed in the analysis of the observation study data, a pilot version deriving from the Co-operative Teaching Survey, and a revised final version.

So that a comparison could be made between teachers' views as to what was possible in the classroom and what they actually did, ten classroom management activities deriving from question 1.1d of the Co-operative Teaching Survey (reproduced in table 3.1 below) were included in the pilot version of the dimension. Two different types of language practice activity each of which was sub-categorised: exercise (drill, information-gap, and open-ended) and role play (both scripted and open-ended) were also included.

After piloting these categories with a small number of lesson transcripts, the dimension was revised. Since a large number of teacher utterances did not easily fit into any of the existing categories, additional categories were created:

(a) Administration

Matters of administration which relate to the organisation of the school as a whole rather than the daily administration of the French classroom (such as checking attendance) were found in the pilot study to be largely conducted in English. The setting up with pupils of appointments for their parents to see the class teacher at a

parents' night demands a degree of linguistic competence which beginning learners do not have in the foreign language. Since Mitchell's (1988) and Wing's (1980) studies showed that teachers believed it possible to perform classroom organisation in the target language, a new category "administration" was created for complex school (as opposed to routine classroom) administrative discourse. All discourse with classroom visitors was also categorised in this way.

Table 3.1 Survey Question on Attitudes Towards the Target Language

Q1.1d In which language do you think the following classroom activities can easily be conducted?

	in French	In French with difficulties	best done in English
a chatting informally with pupils....	1	2	3
b organising the classroom.....	1	2	3
c giving activity instructions.....1		2	3
d explaining meanings.....1		2	3
e teaching grammar.....1		2	3
f teaching 'background'.....N=168....1		2	3
g discussing language objectives.....1		2	3
h correcting written work.....1		2	3
i running tests.....1		2	3
j disciplining.....1		2	3

(b) Organising the classroom: pupil-initiated discourse in French

At the beginning stages of language learning, most pupil-initiated discourse (such as requests for visits to the toilet, or new exercise books) is liable to be in English. However, the pilot study revealed a few instances of target language discourse which was intitiated by the learner rather than the teacher. Since the Joint Working Party for French recommended in their guidelines for teaching methodology for the S-grade that pupils should be encouraged to use the foreign language to communicate their needs, it seemed

appropriate to record any such exchanges where they occurred. A new sub-category of "pupil initiated discourse in French" was, therefore, created.

(c) Activity instructions: issuing homework

In the pilot study, it was found that some teachers who normally gave activity instructions in French, nevertheless issued homework in English. One of these teachers said in interview that he had made a conscious choice to do so because his pupils tended to use "not having understood the instructions" as an excuse for not doing their homework. This teacher evidently perceived issuing homework as a different type of activity from giving activity instructions. A separate sub-category of activity instruction was, therefore, created: "issuing homework".

(d) Discussing meanings: discussing appropriate language

When a teacher talks about the English meaning of a French word, he is clearly engaged in a discussion of "meaning". If on the other hand he asks the pupils "how do we say that in French?", although meaning is still at issue, the context is different. A sub-category of discussing meanings. "discussing appropriate language", was created to deal with this situation where the discourse concerns appropriate language to complete an exercise.

(e) Discipline: assessment of performance

Statements such as "I have to say I've heard the majority of you speaking better" or "vous avez bien travaillé" proved difficult to categorise. Although the two statements are clearly similar in nature, it would be inappropriate to categorise them as aspects of discipline which has the connotation of control of behaviour rather than performance. It could be argued that both statements should be categorised under the heading of "chatting" but since they do not involve a response from the pupils, and the context is formal rather than informal, this too was considered inappropriate. It was tempting to combine all instances of teachers' discourse, which were difficult to categorise, into the single category of "other", but

in this instance a further new category: "assessment of performance" was created.

(f) Teaching grammar; sociolinguistic discussion.
Since knowledge about the appropriate register and degree of formality for a particular context is considered to be an essential part of communicative competence (Canale and Swain 1979, Canale 1984), it was felt important that instances of formal sociolinguistic training observed in the lessons should be recorded. Under the umbrella category of "linguistic discussion" two sub-categories were created: teaching grammar, and sociolinguistic discussion.

(g) Exercise: translation exercise
As a sub-category of exercise, "translation exercise" is used to code discourse about a spoken or written exercise which involves translation from French into English or vice versa. A reading comprehension with questions in English would be categorised in this way.

(h) Exercise: copywriting
A second new sub-category of exercise, "copywriting", was created to describe the activity of pupils copying into their exercise books new vocabulary which the teacher writes on the blackboard. During this activity the teacher may be silent, or he may speak aloud to ask the learners for the next answer, or to check comprehension of what is being written.

(i) Game
"Game" was created for exercises of the information/opinion-gap type which involve a degree of competition between teachers and pupils or among the pupils themselves. Such activities typically require points to be given for correct responses, and winners to be identified at the end.

(iii) Dimension 3 (Final Version)

The revised version of dimension three is shown below. Categories and their sub-categories were numbered consecutively to aid coding of the transcripts. The full revised version of this dimension with a definition of its categories and sub-categories is given in appendix C.

DIMENSION 3: ACTIVITY/TOPIC OF DISCOURSE

Categories are in bold. Sub-categories appear in plain text

A Classroom Management Discourse

Ø **Administration**
1 **Organising the classroom**
2 Pupil-initiated Discourse in French
3 **Activity Instructions**
4 Issuing Homework
5 **Informal Chat/Real life**
6 **Discipline**
7 Assessment of Performance
8 **Running Tests**
9 **Correcting Written work**
10 **Explaining Meanings**
11 Discussing Appropriate Language
12 **Teaching Background**
13 **Discussing Language Objectives**
14 **Linguistic Discussion** (grammar)
15 Sociolinguistic Discussion

B Language Practice Discourse

16 **Exercise** (drill)
17 Exercise (information/opinion- gap)
18 Exercise (open-ended)
19 Translation exercise
20 Copywriting
21 **Role play (scripted)**

22 Role play (open-ended)
23 **Game**
24 **Other**

3.3.4 Dimension 6: Teacher Language

Dimension 6 concerns the language in which the teacher is speaking at any given moment during the lesson. Although in practice a teacher speaks either French or English, to provide as complete a picture as possible of how language was used in the observed lessons, three additional categories were considered necessary.

Teachers' utterances in French may concern classroom management or, alternatively, linguistic prompts and responses in a language practice activity (for example, qu'est-ce que c'est, or j'adore les frites). To categorise the latter as "French" might have resulted in misleading findings with respect to the quantity of French for management purposes. A new category of teacher language was, therefore, created — "Linguistic Prompt/Response" — to identify segments which consisted of French discourse of this sort.

In order to be able to categorise as one segment relatively large sections of classroom management discourse in which the pattern of expectation did not change, but there was nevertheless a degree of code switching, a new category of teacher language "French/ English" was created. This category was then sub-categorised to handle two relatively common linguistic phenomena observed in some classes. Firstly, the sub-category of "juxtaposition" was created to describe the situation where the teacher starts speaking in one language and changes in the very same sentence to the other (e.g. "ouvrez vos cahiers at the back" or "écrivez la date and your heading is..."). Secondly, the sub-category of "translation" was created to describe the situation where the teacher says a word or phrase in French and follows it instantly with a translation in English of what he has just said , for example: "pas de volontaires,

no volunteers?". Translations from English into French are categorised in the same way.

The full definition of the categories of dimension 6 are given in Appendix C.

DIMENSION 6: TEACHER LANGUAGE.

Categories are in bold. Sub-categories appear in plain text

Ø **Linguistic Prompt/Response**
1 **French**
2 **English**
3 **French/English**
4 Juxtaposition
5 Translation

3.4 Practicalities of Applying Dimensions 3 and 6

In order to identify to what extent teachers used French for management purposes in two teaching contexts, with and without a co-operative teacher, dimensions 3 (language activity/topic of discourse) and 6 (teacher language) were applied to the lesson transcripts.

As discussed in section 3.3.1 above, new segments were identified when a change in dimension occurred unless the pattern of expectation was deemed to have remained the same throughout. This means that some segments of classroom discourse, particularly language practice activities were coded as single segments. The following dialogue demonstrates how this worked in practice.

Dialogue 1 (Teacher = T); Pupil = P)

T: Scott, pose la question s'il te plaît et Andrew, réponds à la question
P: Qu'est-ce que tu aimes manger?
T: Bien, qu'est-ce que tu aimes manger? Andrew?
P: Moi, j'adore les pommes
T: Oui, j'adore les pommes, et Fiona, pose numéro trois encore une fois et

Catriona, réponds à la question

P: Qu'est-ce que tu aimes manger?

T: Les frites, les bonbons, les gâteaux?

P: J'aime les frites

In dialogue 1, the first exchange would be coded in the following way:

Move/Exchange	Activity/Topic	Language
T: Scott, pose la question s'il te plaît; et Andrew, réponds à la question	(2) Activity instruction	(1) French
P: Qu'est-ce que tu aimes manger?		
T: Bien, qu'est-ce que tu aimes manger? Andrew?	(16) Drill/exercise	(Ø) Linguistic Prompt

Thereafter, subsequent exchanges in the dialogue were coded as one segment. The teacher's language was coded as Linguistic Prompt and the language activity/topic of discourse was coded as "language drill" despite the fact that the segment contained instances of classroom management in the form of one word "activity instructions" such as écoutez and répétez. The justification for this is simply that although within a language drill it is inevitable that the teacher will say things like bon, ok, and right, such utterances do not affect the pattern of expectation for the segment. They do not herald a change in activity/topic of discourse nor a change in language.

The fact that the teacher in dialogue 1 repeated the instructions "pose la question, réponds à la question" is also of little importance in identifying the overall pattern of the teacher's use of French for classroom management since these instructions correspond to linguistic prompts which promote the the smooth running of the language drill.

What was considered worthy of separate coding (within the

context of a language practice activity) was when a teacher switched from French to English (or vice versa) to give an instruction, and/or changed the topic of discourse within the selfsame language practice activity. In dialogue 2 the teacher did both: the underlined sentences show where the major changes occur.

Dialogue 2

T: Alors posez-moi la question
P: Qu'est-ce que vous aimez boire Mademoiselle?
T: Moi, j'adore le vin rouge et le vin blanc. Can we have the same question from someone else?
P: Qu'est-ce que vous aimez boire?
T: Moi, j'adore le coca et l'orangina
T: What's the other question? Ruth and Danelle face the front.

To be able to show the instances of language change, and movement from classroom management to language practice, this short dialogue was coded as six separate moves/exchanges:

Move/exchange	Activity/topic	Language
1. T: Alors posez-moi la question	(2) Activity instruction	(1) French
2. P: Qu'est-ce que vous aimez boire Mademoiselle?		
T: Moi, j'adore le vin rouge et le vin blanc.	(16) Drill/exercise	(Ø) Linguistic Prompt
3. T: Can we have the same question from someone else	(2) Activity instruction	(2) English
4. P: Qu'est-ce que vous aimez boire?	(14) Drill/exercise	(Ø) Linguistic Prompt
T: Moi, j'adore le coca et l'orangina		
5. T: What's the other question?	(2) Activity instruction	(1) English
6. T: Ruth and Danelle face the front.	(5) Discipline	(2) English

Appendix E shows this method of coding in practice

3.4 Conclusion

In this chapter the choice of non-participant observation and systematic interaction analysis as the instruments of analysis, and the design of the Co-operative Teaching Analysis System, have been discussed. Chapter three concludes the first part of the thesis which provides the theoretical background and the research design of the Co-operative Teaching Study. Part two of the thesis, which follows, presents the findings of the questionnaire and observation study data analyses.

PART 2

FINDINGS

Chapter 4
Teachers' Attitudes Towards Communicative Target Language Use

4.0 Introduction

In chapter 1, Mitchell's 1988 findings with respect to Scottish teachers' attitudes towards the use of the target language were discussed. The ten categories of classroom management used in Mitchell's study were re-used in the Co-operative Teaching Survey so that a comparison could be made between teachers' attitudes in the two studies. The findings of the Co-operative Teaching Survey are discussed in this chapter.

4.1 Hierarchy of Difficulty Among Tasks

In the Co-operative Teaching Survey, teachers were first asked whether or not they thought it important to teach through the medium of the target language. Then they were asked in a closed question to judge whether or not ten classroom management activities could be performed in French, in French with difficulties, or were best dealt with in English.

While most teachers (90% of respondents to the Co-operative Teaching Survey) recognised the inherent importance of teaching in the target language, table 4.1 below shows that they nevertheless identified a hierarchy of difficulty among classroom management tasks, placing them in three broad categories (within each of which a further hierarchy exists). These are:

(1) tasks which are relatively easy to perform in French
- organising the classroom
- giving activity instructions
- chatting with pupils

2) tasks which are relatively difficult to perform in French
   - disciplining
   - running tests
   - correcting written work
   - explaining meanings
   - teaching background

(3) tasks which are extremely difficult to perform in French
   - discussing language objectives
   - teaching grammar

Table 4.1 Choice of Language for Classroom Management Tasks

Question: In which language do you think the following classroom activities can easily be conducted?

N = 200 except where mentioned [1]

Numbers in boxes show combined percentages of at least 80%

PROPOSED ACTIVITY	PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS SAYING THAT TASKS		
	can be conducted in French	can be conducted in French but with some difficulties	are best dealt with in English
Organising the classroom	68	28	3
Activity Instructions	53	38	3
Chatting informally	53	31	15
Explaining meanings	8	53	39
Disciplining	15	38	45
Running tests	13	35	51
Correcting written work	9	34	56
Teaching background (N = 168)	5	33	62
Discussing language objectives	1	12	87
Discussing grammar	0	11	88

These findings are intuitively reasonable. Organising the classroom (asking pupils to remove jackets, and take out books), and giving activity instructions are activities which happen every day, and so can be performed using the same simple phrases which the

[1] Teaching background was not included in the pilot version of the CTS. Percentages for that aspect of classroom management are therefore calculated on an N of 168 which is the combined number of Dumbarton and Glasgow teachers.

pupils soon learn to recognise. Chatting informally in the foreign language can practise vocabulary and structures that pupils already know or are in the process of learning. Activities such as explaining meanings, disciplining (particularly serious infractions), running tests and correcting written work, demand more competence in the foreign language. The language needed is liable to be different each time and therefore more demanding of the learner. What is surprising is the finding that "teaching background" (see 2 above) should be judged to be just as simple to perform in the foreign language as other category-2 activities, while discussing language objectives or teaching grammar are not. Talking about slides (the most common way of presenting information about the foreign country) should, in theory, be significantly more linguistically demanding than explaining meanings, or asking a pupil to behave, and no less demanding than talking about objectives.

If the difficulty of discussing language objectives and explaining points of grammar in the foreign language are of a different magnitude to that of conducting category-1 and -2 activities in French, it is surprising to find that three teachers judged it to be possible to discuss language objectives in French. There is no way of knowing, however, with which level of student they find this possible. It may be that the use of English is unavoidable if one wishes to discuss language objectives with elementary level students.

4.2 Comparison with Mitchell's Findings

A true comparison between the attitudes towards the use of the target language of teachers in the Co-operative Teaching Survey and in Mitchell's (1988) study is not possible. This is because the question of target language use was presented as an open question in Mitchell's study and not all teachers mentioned the same activities. Nevertheless, when her findings are presented in the same format as those of the Co-operative Teaching Survey a similar

pattern emerges. Table 4.2 shows that teachers in Mitchell's (1988) study also appeared to identify a hierarchy of difficulty among the different tasks (albeit a slightly different one), with organising the classroom and informal chat with pupils being easiest to perform in the foreign language, and teaching grammar the most difficult.

Table 4.2 Choice of Language for Classroom Management Tasks. Adapted from an open question in Mitchell (1988).

(Wording of question not available)

N = 59 (although not all teachers answered the question)

Numbers in boxes show combined percentages of at least 25% of teachers interviewed.

PROPOSED ACTIVITY	PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS SAYING ACTIVITY CAN BE DONE IN	
	FOREIGN LANGUAGE	ENGLISH
Organising the classroom	[51]	7
Activity instructions	8	[27]
Informal talk with pupils	12	10
Explaining meanings	(not coded)	22
Disciplining	2	[34]
Running tests	-	7
Correction of written work	2	2
Teaching background	-	[27]
Discussing language objectives	-	14
Discussing grammar	-	[50]

4.3 Guttman Scale

The hierarchy of difficulty presented in table 4.1 above suggests the presence of a Guttman scale. A Guttman scale is a cumulative scale where each increment includes all previous ones. This would mean that teachers who believed that category-3 activities can be done in French or in French with difficulties should also have judged this to be possible with both category-2 and category-1 activities. Similarly, teachers who judged that category-2 activities can be

done in French or in French with difficulties should also have judged it to be possible with category-1 activities, but not with category-3.

In order to test for the presence of a Guttman scale, subsets of teachers were created. Firstly, those teachers who judged it possible to perform "organising the classroom" in French (or in French with difficulties) were filtered off and placed in a subset, and their judgements on each of the ten management activities analysed and percentaged. Subsets of teachers were created in this way for all ten activities. It was assumed that teaching in French with difficulties was a positive judgment and so the percentages for teaching in French and in French with difficulties were added together. It is, of course, recognised that a teacher may choose "in French with difficulties" for negative reasons. This matter is discussed below in section 4.3.1.

Table 4.3 (below) shows the percentage of teachers within each subset who judged it possible to perform activities in French, or in French with difficulties. Teacher judgments are displayed vertically in the table.

In each column, percentages should rise from the bottom of the table (category three activities which are most difficult to perform in the foreign language) to the top (category one activities which are easiest to perform in the foreign language). If this were a true Guttman scale, percentages would be expected to decrease from right to left on the table showing, for example, that a higher percentage of teachers in column 10 (those who believe it is possible to "teach grammar" in the foreign language) judge it possible to conduct all other activities in the target language, than do any other teachers in the table. The ordering of the vertical columns of subsetted teachers in table 4.3 (particularly columns 4-8) makes it difficult to judge whether or not a Guttman scale exists.

Table 4.3 Test for Guttman Scale (10 subsets of teachers)

TEACHERS IN SUBSETS

Percentage of teachers within subsets saying activities can be done in French or in French with difficulties

		Organising the C/R	Activity Instructions	Chatting	Explaining meanings	Disciplining	Testing	Correcting writing	Teaching background	Discussing objectives	Teaching grammar
CATEGORY-1 CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES	Organising the C/R	–	97	98	97	97	90	95	96	96	100
	Activity instructions	92	–	91	95	96	94	91	91	92	91
	Chatting	86	84	–	88	92	87	88	84	93	91
CATEGORY-2	Explaining meanings	61	64	64	–	66	62	42	57	70	71
	Disciplining	54	57	50	57	–	69	61	65	88	87
	Testing	48	50	50	49	62	–	65	51	81	69
	Correcting writing	43	43	46	52	49	58	–	42	49	63
	Teaching background	62	32	38	31	38	40	37	–	60	50
CATEGORY-3	Discussing objectives	14	14	15	16	21	23	18	17	–	36
	Teaching grammar	11	11	12	16	18	15	16	25	30	–

However, table 4.4, which compares three subsets of teachers instead of ten, shows that with the exception of category-1 activities a Guttman-like scale does exist. This finding supports the notion of a hierarchy of difficulty among the ten classroom management activities.

Table 4.4. Test for Guttman Scale (3 subsets of teachers)

← TEACHERS IN SUBSETS →

Average percentage of teachers who think activities can be done in French or in French with difficulties

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES ↓		Average % of category-1 subsets	Average % of category-2 subsets	Average % of category-3 subsets
CATEGORY-1	Organising the C/R	98%	95%	98%
	Activity instructions	94%	93%	91%
	Chatting	90%	88%	88%
CATEGORY-2	Explaining meanings	63%	65%	71%
	Disciplining	54%	71%	88%
	Testing	49%	65%	75%
	Correcting writing	44%	60%	56%
	Teaching background	44%	49%	55%
CATEGORY-3	Discussing objectives	14%	21%	68%
	Teaching grammar	11%	16%	65%

4.4 Question Validity

To what extent can the findings of this question be viewed as being an accurate reflection of what is actually happening in the

classrooms of the respondents?

There are two major difficulties associated with the interpretation of the the Co-operative Teaching Survey data. Firstly, they come from mail-administered questionnaires, and, secondly, (as discussed in chapter 2) they consist largely of attitudinal rather than objective data. It is recognised that the reliability of mail administered questionnaires cannot be taken for granted. Respondents are free to say whatever they please without there being any possibility of the truth of their responses being checked. The chances of respondents giving what they perceive to be desirable responses are particularly high in the case of questions which deal with what may be seen by the respondents as threatening subjects. Mitchell (1988:28) reports that among her interviewees a number of teachers appeared to feel guilty about their lack of success in using the target language as the medium of instruction. She says that almost a third of her sample "seemed almost to feel they were making an admission of unprofessional conduct in 'confessing' to low levels of foreign language use". It is reasonable to assume that this feeling of guilt would also be felt by a percentage of the teachers responding to the Co-operative Teaching Survey. Consequently, this question on the use of the target language might well have been viewed by some as unreasonably inquisitive about a very sensitive matter.

Great care was taken to word this question in as unthreatening a manner as possible. The teachers were not asked to state to what extent they actually used the target language in the classroom, but rather whether they though it was possible to do so.

To further reduce the degree of threat, the wording of the introduction to the question was also carefully chosen. Sudman and Bradburn (1982) recommend, as a method of increasing the validity of responses to threatening questions, the use of authority to justify behaviour. They suggest that respondents are more likely to react favourably to a statement if it is attributed to someone whose

opinion they respect and if the wording of the question gives them permission to report what may be perceived by others as an inappropriate attitude in the context. The introduction to this question reads:

> A survey of teachers' attitudes (conducted in 1983 by a group of researchers from Stirling University) discovered that while many teachers believe in the notion of teaching through the medium of the target language, there is very little agreement as to how many of the activities that regularly occur in the French language classroom can easily be conducted in French. We would like your view.

All efforts, therefore, were made to assure teachers that negative responses to the question were perfectly acceptable. However, if these efforts failed we would expect that teachers would over-report rather than under-report what they consider to be the desirable response.[2] Given the current pressure on teachers to use the target language as much as possible in the classroom we might expect a large proportion of teachers to state that the activities listed in table 4.1 could easily be done in French. If this question does involve a degree of over-reporting, the number of teachers who believe that it is possible to conduct these activities in French is probably even lower than is shown in the table. The implication that must be drawn from this is that a substantial number of teachers do not consider it possible to perform anything other than classroom organisation in the target language. The survey data, however, cannot prove whether or not this reflects actual classroom practice. See chapter 6 for an in depth discussion of this question.

4.5 Interview Data

In the observation study, all eight teachers received in-depth interviews in which a number of aspects of the communicative language classroom were discussed. Since it was not always possible to schedule the interviews to come at the end of the observation period, great care was taken to avoid emphasising

[2] It is possible that teachers would over-report anyway even if they did not feel threatened by the subject matter of the question.

attitude towards the use of the target language. This was to ensure that the teachers did not become aware of the true interest of the researcher, and subsequently change their behaviour to what they thought was expected.

One relevant question was, however, asked with respect to the prescribed teaching methodology of the course book *Tour de France*.

> Tour de France makes a big thing of using French for management purposes. Do you think this is important?

Seven of the eight teachers agreed that using the target language in the classroom was desirable. Only teacher B4 professed to think that there was no benefit to be gained from it for the pupils. By contrast, teacher B1 pointed out that since school foreign language learners are not exposed to French outside the classroom, teachers must be prepared to supply oral/aural input. The importance of extending the learners' experience of the foreign language was also mentioned by B3.

Two teachers (C1 and C2) explicitly stated that some management tasks were best dealt with in English. Both teachers mentioned taking disciplinary action (a category-2 activity) for serious infractions or when the learners were not putting in enough effort. Teacher C1 pinpointed issuing homework (a sub-category of organising the classroom which is a category-1 activity) as being best dealt with in English, while C2 mentioned checking comprehension (category-2), and teaching grammar (category-3).

4.6 Target Language Index of Teachers' Attitudes

In order to be able to differentiate on a continuous scale between positive and negative attitude teachers in the Co-operative Teaching Survey, it was decided to develop a "Target Language Index". This index could then be used in a regression analysis to identify the characteristics of teachers with the most positive attitude towards

the use of the target language. The findings of this analysis are discussed in chapter 5.

Using the natural hierarchy of difficulty among management tasks (as shown in table 4.1 above), weightings of different amounts were awarded to each of the three options (In French, in French with difficulties, and in English). The objective of this was to ensure that teachers saying that activities could be done in French would score more highly than those who said they could be done in French with difficulties, and these in turn would score more highly than teachers saying they should be done in English. The weightings would also increase according to the category of activity. Teachers who believed it possible to perform all activities in the foreign language would score more highly than those who believed it possible to perform category-2 and category-1 activities in the target language. Those who believed it possible to perform only category-1 activities in French would receive the lowest score.

Table 4.5 below shows the exact weightings used to calculate the Target Language Index for each teacher. The weightings were not chosen on the basis of the exact degree of relative difficulty among the tasks. Teaching grammar in French, for example, should not be viewed as being five times more difficult to do than chatting in French with difficulties. The weightings which were finally chosen were those which showed the widest variation in scores between teachers with different attitudes about what it was possible to do in the foreign language, but it is possible that a different set of figures might have provided the same information.[3]

[3] In an earlier attempt to devise a system of weightings the option of "in French with difficulties" was omitted on the grounds that it was difficult to interpret. This produced misleading results. One teacher, for example, who said that only one activity (discussing meanings) could easily be done in French, but that all others were best done in English, scored significantly more highly, than a teacher who said that only one activity was best dealt with in English (teaching grammar) but all others could be done in French with difficulties. It was felt that the latter teacher was more positive about the use of the target language than the former, so in the final system of weightings "in French with difficulties" was retained and judged to be more positive than "best done in English".

Table 4.5 Target Language Index Weightings

	WEIGHTINGS		
	In French	In French with difficulties	in English
CATEGORY-1 ACTIVITIES			
Organising the C/R Activity instructions Chatting informally	15	5	0
CATEGORY - 2 ACTIVITIES			
Explaining meanings Disciplining Testing Correcting writing Teaching background	20	10	1
CATEGORY - 3 ACTIVITIES			
Discussing objectives Teaching grammar	25	15	2

The Index ranges from 9 (for a hypothetical teacher who judged all activities to be best dealt with in English) to 195 (for a hypothetical teacher who judged all activities to be easily conducted in French), but in practice it ranged from 9 to 156. A teacher who received a high score on the Target Language Index was judged to have a positive attitude towards the use of the target language, while one with a low score was viewed to have a negative attitude.

It could be argued that a better way of weighting the activities on the Target Language Index would have been on the basis of relative importance rather than relative difficulty to perform. It is clearly more desirable that teachers should be able to organise the classroom, or give activity instructions in French than be able to run tests or teach grammar in the foreign language, particularly since category-1 activities constitute a very large proportion of classroom management activities. However, since the purpose of the Index was to identify characteristics of Positive Attitude Teachers organising the Index on the basis of relative difficulty was

considered to be more appropriate. Chapter 5 discusses the findings of the analysis of characteristics.

Chapter 5
Characteristics of Positive Attitude Teachers

5.0 Introduction

Although, in chapter 4, the notion that teachers with a positive attitude would also be those who were most successful in their attempts to use the target language was dismissed because the survey data was unable to prove or disprove it, it is, nevertheless, intuitively reasonable to suppose that attitude should affect behaviour. Positive attitude teachers should find it easier to teach in French than negative attitude ones. If the characteristics of the most positive teachers could be identified, therefore, recommendations might be made which could help to improve teachers' attitudes towards using the target language, and conceivably their teaching behaviour. A finding, for example, that positive attitude teachers make most effort to maintain the use of the target language by speaking to native speakers in a variety of settings, would suggest a need to set up in-service courses which would provide opportunities for teachers to communicate with native speakers in the foreign language. Alternatively, if it turned out that the most positive attitude teachers had studied French as a sole subject, there might be a case for recommending that teachers be trained to teach one language only, instead of two which is the most common situation in Strathclyde.

5.1 Correlations and Regression Analysis

To identify the characteristics of positive attitude teachers, first a number of variables were selected from the Co-operative Teaching Survey data. These variables (which are shown in table 5.1) included not only teacher characteristics such as sex, age, professional qualifications, and fluency in the target language; but also reasons that the teachers gave for not using the target language, and characteristics of the schools in which they taught. Then a statistical analysis was performed to identify which, if any, of these variables were related to teachers' scores on the Target

Language Index which was designed to differentiate between teachers with positive and negative attitudes towards the use of the target language in the classroom.

The statistical procedure chosen to identify the characteristics of positive attitude teachers was a regression analysis. This had the advantage of allowing a causal model (which shows the relationship between variables) to be created.

As the first step in selecting appropriate variables (characteristics) for the regression analysis, a Pearson Correlation matrix was created using the Target Language Index as the dependent variable and 48 dichotomous independent variables.[1] Table 5.1 (below) shows the correlations between the Target Language Index and the independent variables which are grouped according to topic.

The correlations are unimpressive. Only a very small number of them (9 out of 48) show a correlation coefficient of above 0.12.[2] This is, of course, partially a reflection of the number of teachers possessing each of the characteristics in the table. Some proportions are very low. Nevertheless, if the purpose of this study were simply to explain the variation in attitudes of teachers in the Co-operative Teaching Survey, and to relate these findings to a larger population, then a regression analysis using only those few relatively high correlations would be appropriate. However, as stated above, one of the the objectives of the Co-operative Teaching Survey was to identify characteristics possessed by teachers with a positive attitude towards the use of the target language.

The procedure undertaken in this study, therefore, was to form a regression equation between the Target Language Index (TLI) as dependent variable and **all** variables listed in table 5.1 (below),

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[1] See Appendix F for justification and explanation of the statistical procedures used in this chapter.

[2] With an N of 201, this is the threshold of significance at the .05 level. Correlations of lesser magnitude would be quite likely (more than 1 in 20) to be the result of chance.

removing one by one those variables which contributed less than .005 to variance explained (see appendix F for computer printouts showing this analysis). This relatively non-stringent criterion was chosen so as to avoid missing anything of importance, but means that the regression equation includes variables that are not significant at the .05 level.

Table 5.1 Pearson Correlations between the TLI and Teacher Characteristics

Variables in **bold** and underlined correlations indicate correlations of at least 0.12 (significant at .05)

Independent variables	**Correlation with Target Language Index**
Topic 1. Personal Information	
Age (35 and under)	-.003
Age (over 40)	-.071
Sex (male)	-.121
Native speaker of French	.039
Topic 2. Academic Qualifications	
MA or BA Ordinary Degree	.096
MA or BA Honours Degree	-.060
B.ED Degree	-.120
French studied as sole subject at university	.044
French studied as first of two subjects	.030
French studied as second of two subjects	-.019
Also qualified to teach English	.011
Also qualified to teach German	.105
Also qualified to teach Italian	-.049
Also qualified to teach Russian	.027
Also qualified to teach Spanish	-.024
Topic 3. Professional Status	
Not promoted	-.073
Assistant Principal Teacher of Modern Languages	.087
Principal Teacher of Modern Languages	-.058
Assistant Principal Teacher of Guidance	.080
Principal Teacher of Guidance	-.017
Senior post (assistant or deputy head teacher)	.113
Topic 4. Nature of School and Department Taught in	
Religion (Roman Catholic)	.009
Social Class (Middle class)	.140
Use of Target Language part of official departmental policy	.031
Group work part of official departmental policy	-.040
Experience of Co-operative Teaching	.116

Table 5.1 (continued)

Topic 5. Reasons For Not Using the Target Language	
The size of the class you are teaching	-.101
The behaviour of the pupils	-.093
How tired you are on a given day	-.099
Your confidence in speaking French	-.026
The reaction of the pupils when you speak French all the time	-.083
Which year group it is you are teaching	-.298
Whether the pupils you are teaching were taught in French last year	-.193
How the class is grouped (whole class or in groups)	-.123
The presence of many low ability pupils in the class	-.146
Topic 6. Fluency in French and Fluency Maintenance	
Native speaker fluency	.008
Fluent and confident, but occasionally make minor errors	.033
A bit rusty, but with a bit of practice could be fluent again	-.016
Residence abroad requirement completed	-.074
Spent an average of eight months as resident in France	.167
Visited France at least once in the 5 years preceding the survey	.215
Talked socially in French to a native speaker in the year preceding the survey	.024
Read a book, magazine or newspaper in French in the year preceding the survey	.066
Attend any of the activities organised by the Alliance Française/ the French Institute/Bal Ecosse in the year preceding the survey	.105
Watch "Télé Journal" or a film in French on TV in the year preceding the survey	-.018
See a film in French at the cinema in the year preceding the survey	.004
Write a letter to France in the year preceding the survey	.069
Visit France in the year preceding the survey	.068

The final equation, which explains 30% of variance, contains 12 variables of which only 5 of the original list of nine survived. These were: sex, having visited France at least once in the preceding five years, having spent an average of eight months as resident in France, and believing that neither the presence of low ability pupils, nor the year group being taught is an impediment to teaching through the medium of the target language. The other four variables (B.ED degree, social class, class grouping, and whether pupils were taught in French last year) have disappeared because in the original equation they were masking the true importance of other variables.

Table 5.2. Effect of Characteristics on TLI

Variable	Average Effect on the Target Language Index
The teacher studied French as his sole subject at university[3]	28.6
The teacher believes that the year group being taught (e.g. 1st year, 2nd year) is **not** an impediment to teaching in the TL	17.9*
The teacher visited France at least once in the 5 years preceding the survey	17.4
The teacher believes that the presence of low ability pupils in the class is **not** an impediment to teaching in the TL	14.6*
The teacher has had at least eight months residence in France[4]	10.4
The teacher attended any of the activities organised by the Alliance Française/ the French Institut or BAL Ecosse (the Bureau d'Action Linguistique) in the preceding year	10.1
The teacher believes that class size **is** an impediment to teaching in the TL[5]	8.8
The teacher does not have an MA or BA Honours degree[6]	7.4
The teacher studied French as the first of two subjects at university	6.7
The teacher is female	5.9*
The teacher is in some sort of promoted post in his department	5.5*
The use of the Target Language has been identified by the principal teacher as being an official part of the departmental teaching policy	4.8

*** indicates variables recoded to ensure a positive correlation[7]**

[3] By "sole subject" is meant that the teacher concerned has degree in French only.

[4] "Months spent in France" is an interval rather than a dichotomous variable. Its original effect coefficient (b) was +1.15 meaning that for every additional month a teacher spent as resident in France he would gain 1.15 points on the Target Language Index. However, since all other effects in the table are the average score of teachers in that category, the original effect of this variable was multiplied by the mean number of months residence (9 months) so as to make it comparable with them.

[5] By "class size" is meant large class size.

[6] This variable is a conflation of the three variables (which appear in the correlation matrix, table 5.1) concerning which type of degree the teachers possess.

[7] Since the objective of the regression analysis was to identify the characteristics of teachers with a positive attitude towards the use of the target language as the medium of instruction, a number of variables which produced negative correlations with the Target

Table 5.2 (below) shows the final list of 12 variables with their positive effects (b coefficients) arranged in decreasing order. The effects show the number of additional points a teacher would score on the Target Language Index if he possessed each characteristic. For example, if a teacher had studied French at university as a single subject he would have scored 28.6 more points on the TLI than one who studied it in combination with another subject. Additional points on the TLI indicate a more positive attitude (according to the teacher's survey responses) towards the use of the target language. In theory, a teacher with all of the characteristics in table 5.2 would score an additional 136.9 points in comparison with a hypothetical teacher who had none of these characteristics.

5.2 Indirect Effects on The Target Language Index

The regression analysis described in the preceding section shows the effects that individual variables have on the dependent variable. For example, being female is worth an additional 5.9 points. It is possible, however, that female teachers have other characteristics which are important in determining their score on the Target Language Index. It may be that a number of female teachers studied French as a single subject at university, and since studying French as one's sole subject has the direct effect of adding 28.6 to a teacher's score on the TLI, it is possible that the indirect effect of this variable (and of others) on female teachers could be considerable and should be taken into consideration. Being female may be even more important in determining positive attitude towards the target language.

Language Index (tables 5.1), were recoded to ensure positive effects in the regression analysis. Asterisks in table 5.2 show the coefficients which were recoded in this manner. Recoding did not, however, prove necessary for "class size". Although "class size" showed a negative relationship (-.101) in the correlation matrix (table 5.1), in the regression analysis it shows a positive effect of 8.8 on the TLI. While such a change of polarity is unusual in regression analysis, it is not impossible, and shows that part of the effects of class size, as shown in the correlation matrix, were attributable to other variables which were suppressing the true relationship between "class size" and the TLI.

To investigate the possible effects that independent variables might have on each other and therefore indirectly on the TLI, a causal model was set up using the 12 variables in table 5.2, but placing them this time in a temporal sequence which corresponds roughly to the sequence of a teacher's life.

Figure 1. Causal Model Relating Teacher Characteristics to the Target Language Index

Biodata →	Qualifications →	Residence in France →	Fluency maintenance →	Departmental aspects →	Reasons for not using TL →	TLI (dependent variable)
Female	Not honours degree Sole subject	Months in France	Visit France Visit French Instititute	Promoted	Class size Mixed ability	

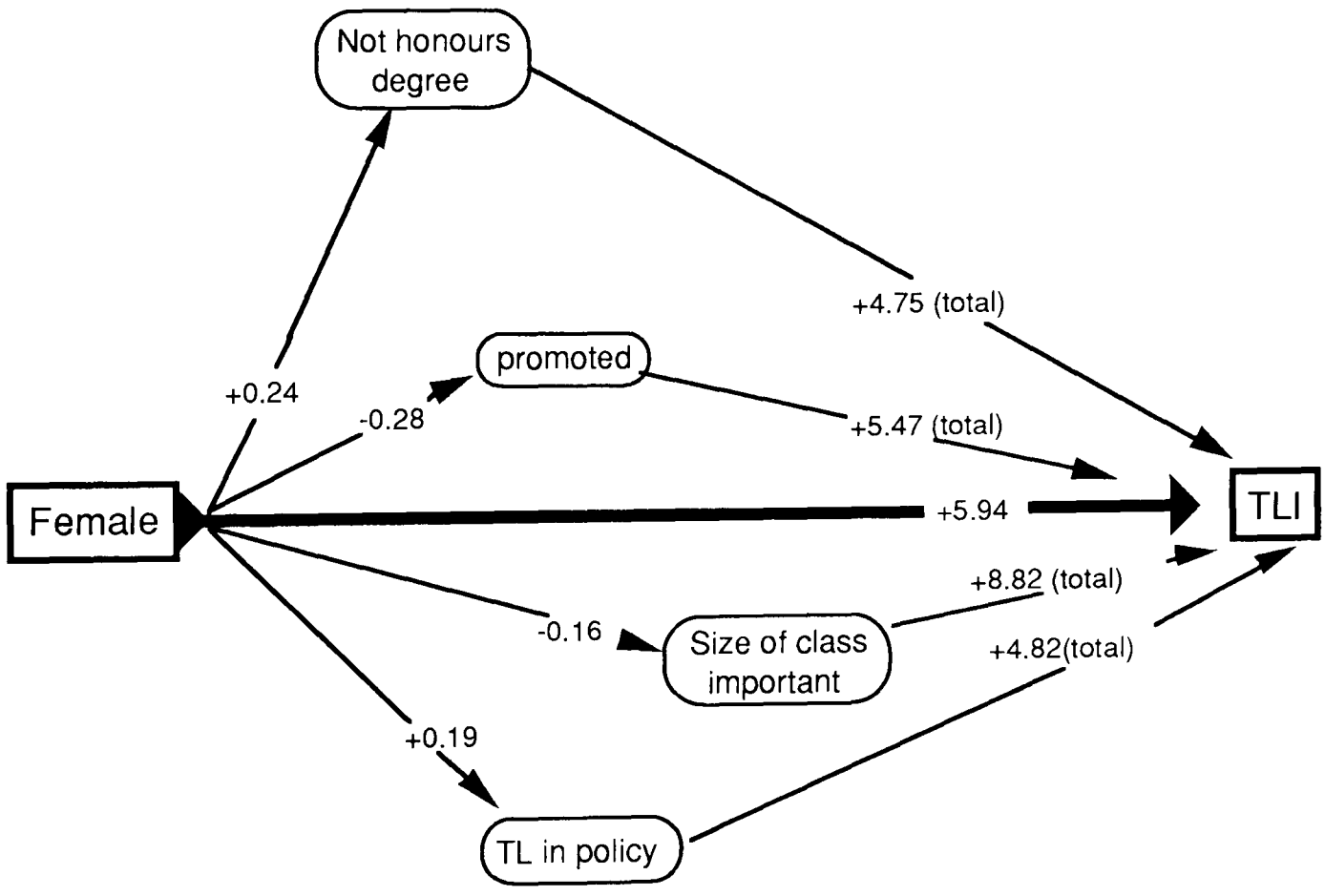
The first step in establishing relationships between the variables in the causal model is (starting from the extreme right in figure 1 above) to create a regression equation with each variable in turn as the dependent variable, and including all independent variables which lie to their left in the diagram (see appendix F for full details of this procedure).[8]

Continuing with the example of female teachers, "female" has an effect on "size of class" as an impediment (-0.16), "being in a promoted post"(-0.28), "teaching in a department whose policy includes teaching in the target language" (+0.19), and "not having an honours degree" (+0.24). The coefficients are so small because they constitute proportions of the direct effect that each of these

[8] Only those variables which added at least 0.01 to variance explained were included in the model. This criterion is twice as stringent as that employed for direct effects, and was chosen to ensure a parsimonious causal model with indirect effects of a reasonable size. Since the strength of indirect effects constitutes a proportion of the original value of the direct effects of intervening variables, a less stringent criterion would have resulted in a large number of small indirect effects adding little to the total effects of the individual variables, while greatly increasing the complexity of the model.

variables has on the TLI. To calculate the indirect effect of being female on the dependent variable (the Target Language Index) the coefficients must be multiplied by the total effects of the intervening variables on the Target Language Index. The total effect of a variable is the sum of its indirect effects, plus its own direct effect on the TLI. The results of this calculation for "female" is shown in figure 2 below which also shows the indirect relationships between the variables.

Figure 2. Indirect and Total Effect of "Female" on Target Language Index



Total effect of female on TLI

via "not honours degree"	+ 0.24 x 4.75 = +1.14
via "promoted"	- 0.28 x 5.47 = -1.53
via "size of class important"	- 0.16 x 8.82 = -1.41
via "TL in policy"	+ 0.19 x 4.82 = +0.92
+ direct	+5.94
	+5.06

The total effect for "female" is now +5.06 which is a slight decrease on its direct effect on the Target Language Index. This decrease is

caused by the fact that females in the survey are slightly less likely than males to be in promoted posts (-1.53) , and are also less likely to consider class size to be an impediment to teaching through the medium of the target language (-1.41). On the other hand, the negative effects are counterbalanced by the fact that female teachers are slightly more likely to have an Ordinary Degree (+1.14) and to teach in a department where teaching through the medium of the target language is part of the policy on teaching methodology (+0.92).

Total effects were computed, as described above, for each of the 12 variables listed in Table 5.2. Table 5.3 (below), which lists the 12 variables in descending order of strength of effect on the Target language Index, shows the computed difference between direct and total effects.

Table 5.3 Total and Direct Effects of Variables on the TLI
(ranked according to strength of total effects)

Variable	Total Effect	Direct Effect	Difference
Studied French as sole subject	30.38	28.61	+1.77
Year group is not an impediment	17.86	17.86	no change
Visited France at least once in previous five years	17.41	17.41	no change
Presence of low ability pupils is not an impediment	14.58	14.58	no change
Visited the French Institute etc.	10.05	10.05	no change
Spent an average of 9 months in France	10.4	10.4	no change
Class size is an impediment	8.82	8.82	no change
Studied French as a first subject	5.48	6.40	-0.92
In a promoted post	5.47	5.47	no change
Female	5.06	5.94	-0.88
Target language in departmental policy	4.82	4.82	no change
Not honours degree	4.75	7.36	-2.54

5.3 Discussion of Total Effects on the TL Index

Only four variables in table 5.3 have indirect effects to be taken into account (studying French as a sole subject at university, studying it as a first subject, not having an honours degree, and being female), and only one of them has indirect effects which increase its total effect on the TLI, namely: studying French as a single subject.

5.3.1 Female

In view of the fact that there were twice as many women as men in the survey, the finding that female teachers were less likely than males to be in a promoted post (figure 2) is somewhat disturbing given the present-day emphasis on equal opportunities, and may be a reflection of the fact that many women take time out of teaching to bring up families at an age when the career teacher is looking for promotion. Alternatively, it may be that fewer females apply for promoted posts. The finding, however, does explain the relatively low effect on the TLI of being promoted. It is interesting too that female teachers were less likely than males to have an honours degree. This may be a further indication that more men than women in the survey have viewed their education and training as a preparation for a life-long career. If this is true, it is unfortunate that having an honours degree should prove to have a negative effect on attitude towards the use of the target language.

That female teachers should consider class size less important than do males has no obvious explanation (see appendix F, for discussion of this point).

The finding that more females than males taught in departments where the target language was part of the policy is relatively simple to explain. In the first instance, more female than male principal teachers mentioned that the use of the target language was part of their departmental policy (correlation 0.174). Secondly, 46% of the 67 male teachers as compared with only 16% of the 132

females in the survey were principal teachers. This means that, of the remaining teachers who were not principals, women outnumbered the men almost four to one. It is inevitable, therefore, that more women than men would teach in departments where the target language was part of the departmental policy on teaching methodology.

5.3.2 Sole Subject

According to the analysis of indirect effects it appears that teachers who studied French as their sole subject at university were also more likely to have spent more time as a resident in France. This is probably because most teachers who studied French as a sole subject had an honours degree (correlation .216).[9] The indirect effect of months spent in France is an additional 4.72 on the Target Language Index.[10]

Studying French as a sole subject is negatively affected (-2.95) by "promoted". Teachers who were qualified to teach French alone were less likely to be promoted than were teachers who taught two languages. Given that in Strathclyde secondary schools promoted teachers become Assistant Principal and Principal teachers of Modern Languages rather than of French, or of German and so on, teachers with a single language qualification tend to be overlooked in favour of teachers with two languages. In fact, none of the teachers in this survey who studied French as a sole subject was an Assistant or Principal Teacher of Modern Languages.

The total effect on the Target Language Index of having studied

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[9] To take up a teaching post in Scotland it is necessary to register with the General Teaching Council for Scotland which requires all teachers of modern languages (irrespective of the class of their degree) to spend a period of time in the country of the language they wish to teach. This is known as the "Residence Abroad Requirement". The requirement for honours graduates is one academic year in the country of the first language, and three months in the second; and for ordinary graduates it is three months in each country. This prerequisite is waived if the teacher graduated before the setting up of the General Teaching Council in 1966.

[10] This coefficient is based on the original b value of the variable "months in France" (1.15) and not the average value which appears in table 6.

French as a sole subject is, nevertheless, increased by the indirect effects it generates. Having studied French as the sole subject constitutes the most important determinant of positive attitude towards teaching through the medium of the target language.

5.3.3 Studying French as a First Subject at University

The total effect on the TLI of having studied French as a first subject at university is slightly decreased when indirect effects are taken into account. Such teachers, were less likely (-.92) to teach in a department which specified teaching through the medium of the target language as part of its policy. There can be no explanation for this finding on the basis of sex; only one third of teachers who studied French as a first subject were male. Since information about which language was studied first or second is not generally made available to employers, teachers are allocated to schools on a random basis. This finding is probably spurious.

5.3.4 Not Having an Honours Degree

The analysis of indirect effects reveals that teachers with ordinary degrees were likely to have spent fewer months as residents in France than were those with honours degrees. This finding is not surprising since the Residence Abroad Requirement is three months for teachers with ordinary degrees, and one year (for their first language if they are studying more than one) for teachers with honours degrees. This fact reduces the effect of not having an honours degree on the Target Language Index by 2.54 points. Not having an honours degree is now the least important of the effects listed in table 5.2.

5.4 Net Effects

Before discussing the characteristics of positive attitude teachers one final computation has to be made, namely calculation of net effects. Since it is essential to balance the final regression equation to ensure that the sum of the total effects does not exceed the sum of the original direct effects, the total effects must be

reduced to net effects by subtracting from them any indirect effects transmitted from earlier in the causal sequence. This final computation produces a marginal difference in the sums of the direct and net effects which can be attributed to rounding error. The net, total, and direct effects are listed below in table 5.4. See also Appendix F for the calculations themselves.

There is another reason for wanting to compute net effects. Since the variables relating to the nature of the classroom (size of class, yeargroup being taught, and the presence of mixed ability pupils) come last in causal sequence, there are no variables intervening between them and the TLI, so there are no indirect effects to change the strength of their direct effects on it. However, it is possible that the classroom variables have themselves had indirect effects on variables earlier in the causal sequence, and so these indirect effects must be subtracted from the total effects of the classroom variables to give net effects.

5.5 Discussion of Net Effects on the Target Language Index

The calculation of net effects has resulted in a change in the order of importance of different effects on the TLI. This change is most vivid when net effects are contrasted with direct effects. Class size and promoted are now more important than before (ranked 5th and 7th respectively, instead of 6th and 11th), while months resident in France and not having an honours degree have decreased in importance, the former dropping from 5th to 8th position, and the latter from 8th to 12th (see table 5.2 for original ranking of direct effects).

5.5.1 Implications of Net Effects for Statistical Procedures

The alteration in the ranking of these variables has important implications for the statistical procedures undertaken in this study. The increase in the effect of "promoted" by 4.5 points (from 5.4 to 9.9) is a vindication of the decision to include variables which were not significant at the .05 level in the regression analysis . If these

variables had been excluded, the importance of "promoted" would have been missed. At the same time, it should be realised that some variables included in the analysis despite statistical insignificance may have effects that are spurious. On average, significance at the .05 level means that 1 in 20 coefficients will be spurious. This equation, therefore, includes variables even more likely to be spurious. In particular, it seems reasonable to suppose that "not having an honours degree" (whose effect has dropped from 7.36 direct to only 3.61 net) is one such spurious variable, and should therefore be ignored.

Table 5.4 Net, Total, and Direct Effects of Variables on the TLI (ranked according to strength of net effects).

Underlined coefficients show differences from the total effects.

Variable	Net Effect	Total Effect	Direct Effect
Studied French as sole subject	30.38	30.38	28.61
Year group is not an impediment	17.86	17.86	17.86
Visited France at least once in previous five years	17.41	17.41	17.41
Presence of low ability pupils is not an impediment	14.58	14.58	14.58
Class size is an impediment	10.23	8.82	8.82
Visited the French Institute etc.	10.05	10.05	10.05
In a promoted post	9.95	5.47	5.47
Spent an average of 9 months in France	8.29	10.40	10.40
Studied French as a first subject	5.48	5.48	6.40
Female	5.06	5.06	5.94
Target language in departmental policy	4.82	4.82	4.82
Not honours degree	3.61	4.75	7.36

5.6 Profile of a Positive Attitude Teacher

It is now possible to provide a profile of the teacher with the most

positive attitude towards the use of the target language as the medium of instruction.

The teacher is female. At university she studied French as a single or as the first of two subjects. At the time of the study she was teaching in a promoted post in a department where the departmental ethos was positively in favour of teaching through the medium of the target language. She spent at least 9 months as a resident in France, and has returned for a visit at least once in the five years preceding the survey. She maintains her fluency not only by visiting France, but also by attending activities organised by the Alliance Française, the Délégation Culturelle de France, or BAL Ecosse. She realises that the size of the class she is teaching affects her success in using French as the medium of instruction, but unlike her less positive colleagues she is not concerned about which year group she is teaching, nor does she find the presence of low ability pupils a problem.

5.7 Positive Attitude as a Reflection of Enthusiasm

At the beginning of this chapter, it was suggested that, if the characteristics of teachers with a positive attitude towards teaching through the medium of French could be identified, recommendations might be made to help improve the attitudes of other less positive teachers. There are a number of reasons why this profile of the positive attitude teacher might fail as a model to which less positive teachers might aspire. Firstly, it does not take account of the relative importance of the variables as measured by the strength of their effects on the TLI. Teacher qualification, for example, has a much stronger effect on teachers' attitudes towards the use of target language than does being female, so the former should be viewed as being more important than the latter. Secondly it does not emphasise variables over which teachers have some control. Teachers cannot affect their sex, they already have a degree in modern languages, and they may not have much control

over whether they become promoted or not. Similarly, classroom variables such as class size or mixed ability are aspects of school policy which individual teachers are unlikely to affect. On the other hand, variables over which teachers do have control are their attempts to maintain fluency through contact with the foreign country and its native speakers. In the regression analysis a teacher who had spent at least nine months as a resident in France, had visited France at least once in the previous five years, and had made attempts to maintain his fluency in his hometown by attending activities held by the French Institute, would have gained 35.7 more points on the TLI than a teacher who had done none of these things.

There is good reason to believe that fluency maintenance activities and regular visits to France are indicators of enthusiasm. In the Co-operative Teaching Survey, teachers were asked whether or not they took part in a number of fluency maintenance activities in the preceding year (from August 1986 - January 1988). A factor analysis of the 7 fluency maintenance activities groups them into 3 factors which explain 58.8% of the variance (table 5.5). These are: activities which involve direct contact with native speakers in France (France factor), activities which can be done at home with no contact with native speakers (home factor), and activities which involve attending the cinema or making contact with native speakers at one of the French Institutes in Glasgow (institute factor).[11]

The three factors might be seen as reflecting relative degrees of enthusiasm for the foreign language in general and speaking to natives in particular. Home factor activities (reading books and magazines in French and watching French films on television) can be

[11] In Glasgow there are three institutes (housed in the same building) set up by the French government and run by native speakers to promote French language and culture: the Alliance Française which organises language and literature courses for non-native speakers of French; the Délégation Culturelle de France (formerly the Institut Français d'Ecosse) which holds a year-long programme of concerts, films, lectures and exhibitions; and the Bureau d'Action Linguistique (BAL-Ecosse) which works closely with both secondary and tertiary educational establishments to promote the learning of French.

done with minimal effort without leaving home and, furthermore, give the teacher no practice whatsoever in speaking French.

Table 5.5 Fluency Maintenance Activities in Three Underlying Factors

	Factor Loadings (in decreasing order of strength)
Factor 1 (France)	
Talk to a native speaker	.82
Visit France	.71
Write a letter in French	.57
Factor 2 (Home)	
Read a book, magazine or newspaper in French	.82
Watch Télé Journal or a film in French on TV	.78
Factor 3 (Institute)	
Attend activities at the Alliance Française etc	.81
See a film in French at the cinema	.68

France factor activities require considerably more effort and expense, but are essentially a once or twice a year activity which can take place during the school holidays when teachers are relaxed and have no major demands on their time. The activities which require the greatest commitment of time and effort are institute factor activities. Teachers involved in these activities have to be prepared to give up free time during the school term when they have other important commitments and, furthermore, make the effort to go out of their homes at a time of year when they are most tired.

The amount of residence time a teacher has spent in a French speaking country is also likely to be indicative of enthusiasm. Since the residence abroad requirement for ordinary graduates is three months, it is likely that teachers with ordinary degrees who have lived for longer periods in France are those who are enthusiastic about the target language. The regression analysis shows that for every month that a teacher spent as a resident in France he gained 0.9 points on the Target Language Index. In other words the longer the term of residence, the more positive the teacher was about teaching through the medium of the target

language. For positive, read enthusiastic. Moreover, gains from visiting France continue after the residence abroad requirement has been met. Teachers who visited France (in addition to their residence abroad requirement) in the five years preceding the survey gained on average 17.4 points on the TLI.

These findings are intuitively reasonable. It is to be expected that teachers who are enthusiastic enough to seek opportunities to communicate with native-speakers outside the classroom should also be positive about using it inside the classroom. What is intuitively unreasonable, however, is that teachers, in the survey, who were native-speakers of French were not particularly positive towards using the target language (scoring from 61 to 110 on the Target language Index).[12] The implication is that native-speaker fluency alone is not sufficient to produce a positive attitude towards using the target language. This notion is supported by the fact that there is virtually no correlation between teachers' self-assessed fluency and their attitude to the use of the target language (see table 5.1). Non-native teachers who visit France on a regular basis clearly gain more than fluency from their contact with native-speakers, and it is this unknown element which contributes to a positive attitude towards the target language. One aspect of this unknown element may simply be enthusiasm for their subject. It is not clear however, whether enthusiasm leads to more frequent visits to France, or whether visits to France engender enthusiasm. It is quite probable that there is a two way cause-effect relationship in operation.

The above discussion suggests that attitude towards the use of the target language for management purposes is a reflection of relative degrees of enthusiasm. Positive attitude teachers are most enthusiastic while negative attitude teachers are less so. If teachers are to be encouraged to use the target language more frequently in the classroom, the solution may be to find ways of

12 This finding is not particularly important given that there were only 6 native-speakers in the survey. A larger sample might have produced different results.

engendering enthusiasm in teachers who are already employed in schools, and to retain it in teachers who are just beginning their teaching career. Before this can be done, however, it may be necessary to solve the problems of the nature of the classroom.

5.8 Importance of Class Variables in Determining Attitude

Although nine reasons why teachers might find it difficult to teach through the medium of the target language were entered into the regression equation (table 5.6 below), the resulting analysis shows that only three classroom variables were strongly related to teachers' attitude towards the target language. These were the presence of low ability pupils in the classroom, the year group being taught, and class size. Teachers, in the survey, who believed that low ability pupils in the classroom and the year group being taught affected their success in using the target language scored on average 17.9 and 14.6 points less on the TLI than teachers who did not think them important. By contrast, teachers who thought that class size was important gained on average 10.2 points more than teachers who did not. These findings are discussed below.

5.8.1 The Problems of Mixed Ability

The Co-operative Teaching Survey data cannot tell us what "mixed-ability" meant to each of the teachers who identified it as being an impediment to teaching through the medium of the target language. In principle, it could mean having illiterate pupils seated next to the academically gifted, but in practice in Strathclyde such a wide range of ability will probably exist in only a small handful of schools. Nevertheless, the problem of teaching through the medium of the target language with classes containing a large number of pupils of low ability was mentioned by several teachers in an open question, despite the fact that the option of choosing that impediment was offered in the closed question immediately preceding it. Many teachers clearly felt very strongly about the matter. Indeed one teacher said:

In fact the realities of mixed ability classes makes the use of the target language as medium of instruction impossible

Teacher 361

Pupils with learning difficulties require a great deal of additional help from the teacher and, if neglected, are liable to misbehave. That the issue of mixed ability may be largely a matter of

Table 5.6 Reasons for Not Using the Target Language (N=201)

(Ranked According to the Percentage of Teachers Judging Each Reason to be Very important).

Question: Please indicate how important you think the following situations are in terms of their contribution to your success in using French all the time in the classroom.

		PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS RATING SITUATION AS			
		IMPORTANT		UNIMPORTANT	
	SITUATION	VERY	FAIRLY	RELATIVELY	EXTREMELY
1	the behaviour of the pupils	76%	19%	2%	1%
2	the size of the class	64%	17%	12%	4%
3	your confidence in speaking French	50%	33%	7%	6%
4	the reaction of the pupils when you speak French all the time	40%	40%	12%	5%
5	the presence of many low ability pupils in the class[13]	39%	36%	17%	5%
6	whether the pupils you are teaching were taught in French last year	36%	32%	19%	10%
7	how tired you are on a given day	27%	43%	19%	7%
8	which year group you are teaching	26%	33%	23%	13%
9	how the class is grouped (e.g whole class/groups)	19%	24%	34%	19%

[13] "The presence of many low ability ability pupils" was not offered as an option in the pilot study conducted in Lanark. All percentages for "low ability" or "mixed ability" are, therefore, based on an N of 168 (i.e. Dumbarton and Glasgow respondents only).

indiscipline is supported by one principal teacher in a predominately middle class school which organised its classes on a system of broad-banding which resulted in "ghetto" classes of almost entirely less-able pupils. He said that

> the vast majority in these classes [with large numbers of low ability pupils] cannot be trusted to work with a partner in paired activities ...
>
> Teacher 341

The implication of the words "cannot be trusted" is that the pupils would behave badly if asked to work in pairs, rather than that they were somehow mentally incapable of handling the tasks set them.

If the problem of low ability pupils pertains to classroom control, it may be that teachers with good classroom control would not find low ability pupils a problem. Alternatively, teachers who did not view low ability pupils a problem might have taught in schools with relatively few pupils of this sort. Unfortunately the survey data cannot prove or disprove either hypothesis. Whatever the reason, it is clear that, for many teachers, pupils with learning difficulties posed a serious threat to their maintenance of French as the medium of instruction. It is unsurprising, therefore, that "the presence of low ability pupils in the classroom" should be a significant determinant of negative attitude towards the target language.

5.8.2 Group Being Taught as an Impediment

The Co-operative Teaching Survey did not ask respondents who judged "year group" to be an impediment to the use of the target language to specify either which year group causes the most problems, or in what respect it is a problem. Nevertheless, informal discussion with teachers (and the author's 12 years experience teaching in Glasgow secondary schools) suggest that second year classes cause the most problems in terms of indiscipline, and indiscipline is likely to be a major impediment to

the use of the target language. Indeed, 97% of teachers in the survey said that pupil indiscipline was important in determining success in using the target language. The problem of second year classes seems to stem largely from the fact that such pupils are entering the stage of adolescence which is typified by rebellion against authority. This is particularly true in the case of second year boys. For girls, the age of rebellion tends to occur later.

One would expect that teachers would find it easier to maintain the use of the target language as the learners become more linguistically competent, and by analogy would expect the learners to find it easier to communicate with teachers in French. In other words, the older the year group the easier it should be to maintain the use of the target language. However, this hypothesis is not borne out by the survey data. When teachers were asked: "When pupils need to speak to you, do you apply a rule that they should do so in French (e.g. when asking for a pencil)? ", their responses indicated that as the pupils became more able to communicate in the foreign language, the less they were required to do so (table 5.7 below).

Table 5.7 Year Groups in which Pupils are Expected to Communicate in the Foreign Language[14]

Question: When pupils need to speak to you, do you apply a rule that they should do so in French (e.g. when asking for a pencil?

YEAR GROUP	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	NEVER
In S1	36%	55%	7%
In S2	34%	51%	7%
In S3	19%	58%	19%
In S4	14%	45%	31%

The most likely explanation for this concerns the fact that, before the introduction of the Standard Grade examination, many teachers felt obliged to move away from a communicative approach to a more traditional one where the use of the mother tongue would be necessary to train pupils in techniques for coping with reading and listening comprehension passages with questions in English. The

[14] The percentages in this table do not sum to a 100 because a number of teachers did not answer the question, and the percentages were calculated on an N of 201.

need for the mother tongue to prepare learners for external examination questions couched in English was identified as an important impediment to maintaining the use of the target language by a number of teachers in an open question.

Why were some teachers better able to cope with the year group they were teaching than were others? It may be, if the hypothesis about the problems of second year classes is correct (although the percentage differences between S1 and S2 in table 5.7 do not support this view), that the difference is a reflection of teachers classroom control. Teachers who did not view year group as a problem may have been better disciplinarians than were those who did. Unfortunately, the survey data cannot prove or disprove this hypothesis. If, on the other hand, the difference between positive and negative attitude teachers concerns teaching methodology, as suggested by table 5.7, the finding may be a reflection of teachers' preference for communicative or traditional teaching approaches. With the former, teachers might be expected to be more positive towards and more conscientious about using the target language as the medium of classroom communication with all pupils irrespective of year group.

5.8.3 Class size

Of the three reasons, class size alone had a positive effect on the Target Language Index. This means that teachers who viewed the size of the class to be an impediment were positive about teaching through the medium of the target language. Although the survey data do not specify which class size might be a problem, it can reasonably assumed that problems arise in large rather than in small classes.

If class size is the only true impediment to the use of the target language in the classroom, it is extremely surprising that teachers who were negative towards the use of the target language did not view it as a problem. The most obvious explanation for this anomaly would have been that teachers who did not judge class size to be a

problem taught in schools with small classes, but table 5.8 (below) shows that this is not so. Teachers in this situation were just as likely to teach in a department which had large classes as in one which had small classes.

Another explanation for the fact that class size had a positive effect on the TLI may be that teachers who did not see class size as a problem were those who had continued to teach in a traditional whole class manner, eschewing group and paired activities, and so were less aware of the problems that class size could cause the communicative language teacher. The difference between teachers' attitudes to the importance of class size may reflect their attitude to language teaching methodology.

However, even in whole class teaching the size of the class can help or hinder activities. The more pupils there are, the more disciplinary problems there are likely to be and, consequently, the harder it will be to avoid breaking into the mother tongue to help things along. Negative attitude teachers may simply not have thought very carefully about the question.

Table 5.8. Class Sizes of Teachers Judging Size to be Unimportant

Class size in S1	Number of Teachers judging class size to be unimportant	Class size in S2	Number of Teachers judging class size to be unimportant
32	2	32	0
30	3	30	5
29	5	29	5
28	2	28	2
27	6	27	5
26	5	26	3
25	5	25	3
24	1	24	0
23	0	23	2
22	0	22	3
20	1	20	1
18	0	18	1

A fourth possible explanation is that teachers who were negative towards the use of the target language, were negative towards it irrespective of class size.

5.9 Conclusion

In this chapter the characteristics of a teacher with a positive attitude towards the use of the target language for classroom management purposes have been identified. It has been suggested that the characteristics over which teachers have most control, and are therefore able to change, are those which reflect enthusiasm for the foreign language. This implies that if teachers' enthusiasm for the subject they are teaching could be stimulated, their attitude towards the use of the target language as the medium of instruction might change. It is not clear how this could be done, but it is possible that in-service training which involves contact with native speakers of French either in this country or in France might be of value. In addition, a solution needs to be found to help teachers overcome the difficulties associated with class size, year group, and the presence of low ability pupils, namely pupil indiscipline and teachers' negative attitudes towards Communicative Language Teaching methodology. Co-operative teaching may provide such a solution. This is discussed in chapter 8.

Chapter 6
Survey Responses as a Reflection of Classroom Behaviour

6.0 Introduction

As discussed above, there is no way of knowing from the data themselves to what extent teachers responses to the Co-operative Teaching Survey question on target language use reflect actual classroom practice, but an analysis of the reasons why teachers might have chosen each of the three options may be illuminating.

Teachers who judged that the activities "are best dealt with in English" may fall into one of two categories. Some of them might have carefully considered the matter and genuinely believed that the activity in question was best done in English. They might even have tried and failed to conduct the activity in French. These teachers might have selected either or both of the other two options (can be conducted in French; or can be conducted in French, but with some difficulties) for some of the other activities. Alternatively, teachers might have selected "in English" because as a normal rule they taught through the medium of English in their classrooms. In either case, given that most teachers (90%) thought it important to teach through the medium of the target language, it seems likely that, if a teacher selected "are best dealt with in English", it was because in his own classroom he performed that activity in English. Choosing this option might be a reflection of classroom practice.

The choice of "in French with difficulties" is harder to interpret. Although it might be that the teacher who selected this option had tried to conduct the activity in French, but had experienced difficulties in doing so, it is equally possible that he made this choice because he didn't want to appear unprofessional by selecting "in English" for every activity. By choosing this option he might simply have been sitting on the fence, unwilling to commit himself either way. Since it is impossible to know for certain why teachers chose any option in the question on attitude towards target

language use, it was decided to give teachers choosing "in French with difficulties" the benefit of the doubt. "In French with difficulties" was deemed to be a slightly more positive choice than "best dealt with in English".

With the option of choosing "in French with difficulties" available to him, (a choice which suggests that the teacher is at least trying to use the target language) there seems little reason for a teacher to have said that an activity "can be conducted easily in French" if he did not genuinely believe this to be true. If the teacher did believe it to be true, his judgment might well have been based on personal experience of having conducted the activity in French.

These conclusions are, of course, purely speculative. As stated before, it is impossible to extrapolate from attitudinal data. Nevertheless, it seems reasonable to suppose that the teachers who claimed it was easy to perform a number of classroom management activities in French were precisely those who were most successful at maintaining its use in the classroom. One of the questions addressed in the observation study is to what extent (if any) teachers' classroom behaviour accords with their stated attitudes towards the use of the target language. Each teacher under observation also completed a questionnaire some months earlier. It is, therefore, possible to establish to what extent their survey responses reflected actual classroom practice.

In an attempt to establish the degree to which teacher opinion of what can be done in the classroom reflects classroom behaviour, this chapter compares the attitudes of eight teachers of French towards the target language (as shown in their Co-operative Teaching Survey responses) and their behaviour in the observation study.

6.1 Characteristics of the Observed Teachers

Before discussing the findings of the comparison between opinion and behaviour, it is important to consider to what extent the teachers in the observation study possessed the characteristics identified in chapter 5 as being indicative of positive attitude towards the use of the target language. This would allow a prediction to be made about the teachers' probable language behaviour. Table 6.1 below shows that teachers B2 and P1 possess more than half of these characteristics but, when the Target Language Index score is taken into account, only teacher B2 might realistically be expected to use the target language for classroom management tasks other than those most easy to perform in French (organising the classroom, chatting and giving activity instructions). At the other end of the scale, teacher B3 (who possesses only three of the twelve characteristics) might be expected to have considerable difficulty in teaching through the medium of the target language.

Table 6.1 Characteristics of the Teachers Taking Part in the Observation Study

nd = no data available because teacher did not answer that question

Characteristics	Teachers							
	C1	C2	B1	B2	B3	B4	P1	P2
1 Studied French as a sole subject	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Year group not an impediment	nd	-	-	√	-	-	√	-
3 Visited France at least once in last five years	√	√	√	√	-	√	√	√
4 Low ability pupils not an impediment	-	-	√	-	-	-	√	-
5 Class size is an impediment	√	√	√	√	√	√	-	nd
6 Visited French Institute etc in previous year	-	-	-	-	-	√	-	-
7 In a promoted post	√	-	√	-	-	-	√	√
8 At least 9 months residence in France	-	√	-	-	-	√	√	√
9 Studied French as first of two subjects	-	-	-	√	-	√	√	√
10 Female	-	√	-	√	√	-	-	√
11 Target language in departmental policy	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
12 Not honours Degree	√	√	-	√	-	-	√	-
TARGET LANGUAGE INDEX	81	50	72	126	52	81	62	80

6.2 Survey Responses as a Reflection of Behaviour

6.2.0 Method of Analysis

To make a comparison between survey responses and actual classroom behaviour, all lesson transcripts of the eight teachers working with their own classes were coded using dimensions three (Activity/Topic of Discourse) and six (Teacher Language) of the Co-operative Teaching Analysis System.[1] Next, total occurrences of each of the ten management activities which were performed in each language (French, English and a mixture of French and English) were calculated.[2] Finally an average percentage (across all lessons for each teacher) of the total occurrences of each activity was created for each language (French, English and a mixture of both). The major difficulty in comparing opinion with practice, was the problem of interpreting the category of "in French with difficulties" in the survey. Since the term "in French with difficulties" implies that teachers had tried to use French, but had on occasion been forced to break into English, this category was judged to be roughly equivalent to the behaviour category of a mixture of French and English.

No teacher performed any activity in French or in English exclusively, and only one or two did so as often as 80% of the time. To compare the observation study findings with the teachers' survey responses, therefore, an activity was deemed to have been performed in French (or in English) if 75% or more of its occurrences were conducted in that language.[3] Three middle

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[1] Teachers' use of the target language when they are working as co-operative teacher is not used in the calculation. Inclusion of this data in table 6.2 would, for a number of teachers, distort the findings. In the classroom of another teacher, co-operative teachers have little responsibility for classroom organisation. Consequently, it is easier to avoid breaking into English. Teacher B1, for example used French 64% of the time with his own class, but 90% when teaching co-operatively in the class of teacher B2. See chapter 7 for further discussion of this matter.

[2] The activities were: organising the classroom, giving activity instructions, chatting informally, explaining meanings, discipline, correcting homework, testing, discussing background, discussing objectives, discussing grammar.

[3] Wing (1980) also used 75% Spanish as the cut off point for high target language users, and 75% English for low target language users.

categories were created to show the degree of variability in the mixture of the two languages that was observed. F(E) is equivalent to 61%-74% French; E(F) equals 61%-74% English; F/E represents all other combinations. Where no occurrence of an activity occurred, this is shown in the table with a dash (-). No instances of testing was observed in any of the lessons for any teacher, so it is omitted from table 6.2 (below).

Table 6.2 Opinion and Behaviour Compared: Choice of Language

F = Opinion: "can easily be conducted in French";
Behaviour: at least 75% of segments performed in French
F/E = Opinion: " can be conducted in French but with some difficulty"
Behaviour: segments performed in a mixture of French and English
F(E)= Behaviour: 61-74% French; (E)F = Behaviour: 61-74% English
E = Opinion: "are best dealt with in English";
Behaviour: at least 75% of segments performed in English

TEACHERS **CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES**

Category-1 activities

	ORGANISING THE CLASSROOM		CHATTING INFORMALLY		ACTIVITY INSTRUCTIONS	
	opinion	behaviour	opinion	behaviour	opinion	behaviour
C1	F	F	F	-	F	F
C2	F	E(F)	F	-	F	F/E
B1	F	F	F	-	F	F/E
B2	F	F	F	F/E	F/E	F/E
B3	F	F	F/E	-	F	F/E
B4	F	F/E	F	-	F	E
P1	F	F	F/E	F/E	F	F/E
P2	F	F/E	F	E	F/E	E(F)

Category-2 activities

	EXPLAINING MEANINGS		DISCIPLINE		CORRECTING WRITTEN WORK		BACKGROUND	
	opinion	behaviour	opinion	behaviour	opinion	behaviour	opinion	behaviour
C1	E	F/E	F/E	F	E	E	F/E	-
C2	E	E (F)	E	E	E	-	E	-
B1	F/E	F/E	F/E	F	E	E (F)	E	F/E
B2	F/E	E(F)	F	F/E	E	F/E	F	F
B3	F/E	F/E	E	F/E	E	E	E	-
B4	F/E	E	F/E	E	E	-	E	-
P1	F/E	E	F/E	F/E	E	-	E	-
P2	E	E	F/E	E	F/E	E	F/E	E

Table 6.2 (continued)

	Category-3 activities			
	DISCUSSING LANGUAGE OBJECTIVES		TEACHING GRAMMAR	
	opinion	behaviour	opinion	behaviour
C1	E	E	E	-
C2	E	-	E	-
B1	E	F/E	E	-
B2	F/E	E	F/E	E
B3	E	-	E	-
B4	E	-	E	-
P1	E	-	E	-
P2	E	-	E	-

6.2.1 Hierarchy of Difficulty

Table 6.2 shows that, in the observed lessons, classroom management activities appear to fall into a similar hierarchical order to the one which was identified in the survey responses. Classroom organisation appears to be the activity which was mostly frequently performed in the foreign language, while teaching grammar was most frequently performed in English.

Although it is impossible to know why a teacher would choose to perform one activity in French, and another in English, it is probable that the choice is affected by how difficult the activity is to execute in French, both in terms of the teachers linguistic competence, and the learners ability to comprehend. These findings suggest that the hierarchy of difficulty is more than a theoretical concept.

6.2.2 Opinion and Behaviour Compared

Table 6.2 shows that true similarity between teachers opinions about what is possible, and what they actually did in the classroom existed only for "organising the classroom" where there is a perfect match for five of the eight teachers. Most differences between opinion and behaviour suggest that in the survey teachers over-estimated what was possible for them to do in the classroom situation. Teacher B4 provides the most striking example of this. Although he claimed in his survey that it was possible to conduct all

category -1 activities in French, and two of the category -2 activities in French with difficulties, in practice he used English almost 100% of the time.

By contrast, one or two teachers appeared to have underestimated what was possible in the classroom. For example, teacher C1 used a considerable amount of French when explaining meanings although in the survey he stated that this was best dealt with in English. He also dealt with pupil indiscipline largely in the foreign language. Teacher B1 used more French for four of the nine activities (discipline, correcting written work, discussing objectives, and teaching background) than he had estimated was possible in the survey.

In a further attempt to compare opinion and behaviour, it would have been useful to have been able to calculate Target Language Index scores for each teacher on the basis of their observed behaviour, and to compare that with their scores gained in the survey. Since there were no recorded instances of certain activities in many of the lessons observed, this was not possible. However, when teachers' TLI scores are compared with the average percentage of French used for management purposes in the lessons where they were the main classroom teacher, a relatively high correlation (0.4) is found.[4] Table 6.3 shows this comparison.

It should be pointed out that an exact match between opinion and behaviour would have been very surprising. There are a number of reasons for this.

Firstly, all classes observed in the study were first year classes containing beginner learners whose knowledge of the foreign language was severely restricted.

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[4] The percentages given in this table were calculated by timing the relative amounts of French and English for management purposes, and deriving the proportion of French from the total.

Table 6.3 Teachers' Rankings Compared: TLI and % of Management in French. (Correlation, r= 0.40)

TEACHER	TLI SCORE	(RANK)	% OF MANAGEMENT LANGUAGE IN FRENCH	(RANK)
B2	126	(1)	59%	(3)
C1	81	(2)	78%	(1)
P2	81	(2)	40%	(5)
B4	81	(2)	5%	(8)
B1	72	(5)	64%	(2)
P1	62	(6)	41%	(4)
B3	52	(7)	31%	(6)
C2	50	(8)	20%	(7)

Since the survey question did not specify with which year group teachers might use which language, it is impossible to judge which year group teachers were thinking of when completing the question. If teachers were thinking of older pupils, this might lead them to overestimate what was possible with beginners.

Secondly, there is no way of ascertaining to what extent the teachers' understanding of the ten activities listed in the survey question (table 4.1, chapter 4) corresponded to that employed by the observer when categorising and coding the lesson transcripts. This problem is exemplified in the case of "chatting informally" which proved extremely difficult to identify in the observed lessons. Many teachers made short informal humorous comments in French during the lessons. While teachers might themselves have categorised such comments as "chatting informally", in the lesson analysis they were coded as "other" since they did not fulfill the pre-specified criterion that "chatting informally" should involve an expected (although not necessarily realised) response from the pupil(s) and that the topic should concern the pupils' and/or teachers' home or school life. Informal chat, categorised in this way proved to be an uncommon activity in the classes observed, but where it did occur it was often conducted in English. Teacher P2, for example, was inclined to interrupt paired activities to chat in English about the

pupils' favourite football team's most recent match, yet in the survey she claimed that informal chat was easily performed in French.

Thirdly, the teacher's interpretation of the term "in French with difficulties" in the survey is in question. It is impossible to know how much difficulty they would have to have had before they would select this option rather than "in French" or "in English".

A fourth potential cause of mismatch between opinion and behaviour is the fact that since teachers were observed relatively few times, there is no way of judging whether their behaviour on these occasions was typical or not.

Finally, it is likely that in the co-operative teaching survey, some teachers gave the responses which they felt would be expected of professional language teachers rather than those which corresponded to their own behaviour. This explanation accords with Mitchell's (1988) findings which were discussed in chapter 1, and may explain the large difference between teacher B4's opinions and behaviour as shown in tables 6.2 and 6.3. Just prior to the observation study, teacher B4 had applied for and failed to gain the post of assistant principal teacher of modern languages in his own department. The surveys were completed five months before the observation study took place, so it is probable that B4 completed his survey before his interview for the job. The viewpoint, that teaching through the medium of the target language is unimportant, would not be considered appropriate for someone who would have some control over departmental language teaching policy. It is, therefore, possible that teacher B4's survey responses reflected an unwillingness to appear "unprofessional" in print. In fact, B4 did not hesitate to admit in face-to-face interview that, in his opinion, teaching through the medium of the target language was not important. However, by that time he had been observed using nothing but English in his lessons, so his credibility would have been

at risk if he had said anything else.

6.2.3 Opinion and Behaviour Compared: Conclusion

The problems associated with the method of analysis for comparing opinion with practice make it impossible to make a definitive statement about whether the teachers' responses in the survey were true reflections of what they did in the classroom. Nevertheless, the 0.40 correlation between teachers' TLI scores which were calculated according to their expressed opinions of what it was possible to do in the foreign language, and the percentage of French for management purposes that actually occurred in their observed lessons allows a tentatively conclusion that, for these teachers (with the possible exception of teacher B4), opinions given in the survey were a reflection of classroom behaviour.

6.2.4 Management Activities Additional to the Survey

In order to take account of management activities in the observed classes which did not correspond to the ten activities listed in the survey question, an additional 5 categories were created for the Co-operative Teaching Analysis System. These were Administration, Issuing Homework, Assessing Performance, Discussing Aspects of Sociolinguistics, and Discussing Appropriate Language. Table 6.4 shows that only "Assessing Performance" proved to be performed relatively frequently in the foreign language.

Most administrative interruptions in the observed lessons involved discussions with classroom visitors (who may or may not have had a knowledge of French), and setting up appointments with pupils for their parents to see the teacher at a parent night. Since beginning learners are unlikely to have sufficient knowledge of the foreign language to cope with complex instructions, the use of English was to be expected. For the same reason, the issuing of homework in English might also be expected. As mentioned in chapter 4, teacher C1 said that he had tried issuing homework in French but had found that his pupils were inclined to use "not having understood the instructions" as an excuse for not doing the work. Thereafter, he

systematically issued homework in English.

Discussing Appropriate Language to use in paired or group activities was relatively common in most classes, and took the form of response to the question "how would we say X in French?". If this is an essential part of the learning process, it is difficult to see how the use of English could be avoided. However, alternative methods of rehearsing learners for language practice activities were observed in some classes. These alternatives are discussed in chapter 8.

Table 6.4 Teachers' Choice of Language for Additional Management Activities

F = at least 75% of segments performed in French
F(E) = 61-74% French; (E)F = 61-74% English
F/E = segments performed in a mixture of French and English
E = at least 75% of segments performed in English

ACTIVITIES	TEACHERS							
	C1	C2	B1	B2	B3	B4	P1	P2
Administration	E	E	F/E	F	E(F)	E	F/E	E(F)
Issuing Homework	E	E	E	F/E	F/E	-	E	E
Assessing Performance	F(E)	E	F	F/E	E	-	F/E	F/E
Discussing socio-linguistics	F	F/E	-	-	-	E	E	E
Discussing appropriate language	E	E	F/E	E	-	E	E	E

Sociolinguistic discussion was uncommon in the lessons observed, and largely concerned the difference between the "tu" and "vous" forms of the second person singular. One exception to this was teacher P1's attempts to make his pupils aware of the appropriateness of certain statements when one is admiring a person's house. This was conducted entirely in English and was a segment occurring within a longer one which was categorised as "discussing appropriate language":

T: would you say "c'est moche"?
P: No
T: Why not?
P: In case you upset them

T: That's right, it's impolite, so we'll not say that. Anything else you can think of? You're not going to say je n'aime pas... or je déteste... because that would hurt their feelings.

6.2.5 Pupils' Use of the Target Language for Management Purposes

In the Co-operative Teaching Survey, teachers were asked two questions about teaching classroom French to their pupils. Firstly, they were asked to what extent they considered it important to teach their pupils the kind of language which would allow them to ask in French for a pencil or to apologise in French for being late. Secondly, they were asked to what extent they required their learners to use this language. Table 6.5 shows that although most teachers considered it important to teach this sort of language, they nevertheless did not systematically expect their pupils to use it. Only one teacher, B2, claimed to require her S1 pupils to address her in the foreign language, but even she did not maintain this with her older pupils who it might be expected would be better equipped to do so.

Table 6.5 Importance of French for Pupil-to-teacher Talk

How important is it to teach pupils classroom language?	To what extent do you require your pupils to speak to to you in French?			
	In S1	In S2	In S3	In S4
Teacher				
C1 **very** important	sometimes	sometimes	sometimes	sometimes
C2 fairly important	sometimes	sometimes	sometimes	**never**
B1 fairly important	sometimes	sometimes	sometimes	sometimes
B2 **very** important	**always**	sometimes	sometimes	sometimes
B3 fairly important	sometimes	sometimes	sometimes	sometimes
B4 fairly important	sometimes	sometimes	sometimes	sometimes
P1 fairly important	sometimes	sometimes	sometimes	sometimes

These findings were duplicated in the teacher interviews. When asked whether or not they taught the "personal language" in *Tour de France* (which is designed to equip learners with sufficient French to enable them to deal with classroom communication), most teachers stated that although they thought it was important and did teach this language, they did not systematically require their pupils

to use it. Teacher B3 said that she taught the personal language unless she was under pressure to finish teaching a unit by a particular deadline. Clearly, she felt that this was the least important part of the lessons. Teacher B2, who in the survey said she always expected her first year pupils to use the target language, said in interview that although she intended to insist on their using French at all times, there were always lapses.

In the observation study only three instances of pupil-initiated foreign language discourse were observed. In teacher B2's class a pupil said "il fait chaud", and this led to an exchange between himself and the teacher, conducted entirely in French, which resulted in the teacher asking the pupil to open the window. In teacher C2's class, however, the opportunity that such a pupil-initiated exchange might have afforded for a truly communicative exchange was overlooked by the teacher. One pupil, who asked in French on two separate occasions to go to the toilet, was on one occasion answered with the monosyllable "oui", and on one occasion was responded to in English:

P Est-ce que je peux aller à la toilette
T Well, since you asked in French ...

Instances of prompted pupil foreign language discourse (where the pupil said something in English and the teacher insisted that he/she repeat it in French) were even more unusual, occurring only twice throughout all observed lessons, once in the class of teacher P1 and once in the class of teacher P2. This latter instance is worth examining for its probable negative effect on the pupil involved in the exchange, and on the rest of the class who were listening.

P: I've not got my jotter
T: En français, qu'est-ce qu'on dit? J'ai oublié mon cahier..... Allez, en français.
P: J'ai oublié mon cahier
T: Alors tu es stupide. Je te donnerai une punition après.

It is difficult to see how being told that he is stupid, after he has made an effort to use the foreign language as requested by the

teacher, could serve as anything other than a discouragement to try to use the foreign language on future occasions. In fact, this sort of negative response was typical of teacher P2. She seemed to take a great deal of pleasure in "putting down" her pupils, and commonly used a sneering tone of voice when assessing their performance. That her pupils were affected by this behaviour is evidenced by the fact that, when a small group of them were interviewed, they spontaneously brought up the matter of their teacher's unwillingness to explain things sufficiently well, and her readiness to call them stupid when they failed to understand. It is interesting to note that both the pupils who were interviewed, and the observer herself, noticed that teacher P2 behaved in a much more pleasant and patient manner when the co-operative teacher was present in her classroom. When the pupils were asked whether they would prefer to have co-operative teaching with P1 all the time instead of working with their class teacher alone, they said:

Pupils	[Teacher] P1 all the time
Pupil 1	Some people say he's strict
Pupil 2	No, I like [teacher] P1 because he says things slow and he explains it more
Pupil 3	When we have tests with him he gives you more chance, P2 doesn't
Pupil 2	Cos I went to him for a test and I got full marks the second time around because I went to his class.

The importance of a pleasant and encouraging atmosphere in the classroom should not be underestimated.

6.3 Conclusion

The findings discussed in this chapter show that there is some similarity between teachers opinions of what is possible in the classroom as shown by their survey responses, and what they actually did during the observation study. The hierarchy of difficulty in classroom management tasks also appears to exist in practice as well as in theory, as shown by the common progression of the average percentages in table 6.6. Furthermore the order of activities within each category is similar for both opinion and practice.

Table 6.6 Percentage of Teachers Choosing Different Languages for Management Tasks; Opinion and Behaviour Compared.

Behaviour percentages calculated from the number of teachers performing the activity.
O= Opinion; B = Behaviour

PROPOSED ACTIVITY	PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS SAYING/SHOWING THAT TASKS					
	can be conducted in French		can be conducted in French but with some difficulties		are best dealt with in English	
	O	B	O	B	O	B
Organising	68	57	28	43	3	0
Instructions	53	13	75	75	3	12
Chat	53	0	31	100	15	0
AVERAGE	**58**	**23**	**45**	**73**	**7**	**4**
Meanings	8	0	53	63	39	37
Discipline	15	25	38	38	45	38
Correction	9	0	34	40	56	60
Background	5	33	53	33	62	33
AVERAGE	**9**	**15**	**45**	**44**	**51**	**42**
Objectives	1	0	12	33	89	67
Grammar	0	0	11	0	88	100
AVERAGE	**1**	**0**	**12**	**17**	**89**	**84**

Given the small size of the sample (8 teachers) it is impossible to generalise about the probable behaviour of the other teachers who responded to the Co-operative Teaching Survey. An observation study involving a larger number of teachers would be necessary in order to test properly the hypothesis that teachers' attitude towards the use of the target language as measured by the Co-operative Teaching Survey is a true reflection of classroom behaviour.

Chapter 7
Quantity and Quality of Teacher Discourse

7.0 Introduction

In chapter two, two research questions were posed. These were:

1. To what extent (if any) does teaching with a second fluent target language speaker (a co-operative teacher) increase the quantity of "communicative" target language used by the teacher(s)?

2. To what extent (if any) does teaching with a second fluent target language speaker (a co-operative teacher) improve the quality of the teachers' "communicative" target language in terms of diversity verbs and variety of grammatical structures.

Using the findings of the observation study, this chapter attempts to answer these questions.

7.1 Research Question 1

7.1.0 Predicted Teacher Behaviour

In the Co-operative Teaching Survey teachers were asked to what extent they used more French when teaching co-operatively than when teaching alone. Table 7.1, which compares the responses of all survey respondents (column one and two) with those of the observed teachers, shows that half of the total respondents to the survey, and five of the eight teachers in the observation study made the judgment that the presence of native-speaking co-operative teachers in the classroom increases the amount of French spoken by the classroom teacher. By contrast, only 16% of survey respondents and two of the observed teachers stated that they spoke more French with a non-native co-operative teacher than they did when alone with their class. Since the survey responses were not analysed until after the observation study was complete, this

information was not available sufficiently early to affect the choice of schools which took part in the observation study. Consequently, it was only possible to test the claim with teachers at Cooper High school, because only in this school was a native-speaking co-operative teacher employed.

Table 7.1 Teachers Opinions on Effect of Co-operative Teaching on Quantity of French

Question:Please indicate whether you speak more, less, or the same amount of French to/with your pupils when co-operatively teaching with any of the following types of teacher?

M= more; S= Same; N/A = not applicable

			TEACHERS							
TYPE OF CT	All (N= 184)		C1	C2	B1	B2	B3	B4	P1	P2
	M	S								
Native speaker	44%	40%	M	S	M	S	M	M	M	N/A
Promoted colleague	13%	55%	N/A	S	N/A	S	S	S	N/A	S
Unpromoted colleague	16%	71%	M	S	M	S	S	S	S	S

On the basis of the findings of table 7.1, it was predicted that teacher C1 who claimed to speak more French with a native speaker would show an increase in target language use, while teacher C2 who claimed to speak the same amount of French with a native speaker, would not. These predictions will be evaluated in the next sections of this chapter.

Table 7.1 also shows that of all eight observed teachers, only teachers C1 and B1 claimed to speak more French when teaching co-operatively with a non-native colleague. Teacher C1, however, was observed teaching only with a native colleague, so this claim cannot be tested for him. Of the 6 teachers observed working with non-native speakers, it was predicted that only teacher B1 would speak more French when teaching co-operatively.

7.1.1 Quantity of Foreign Language in Two Contexts

The methodology used to calculate the exact quantities of French and English for management purposes was discussed in chapter 2.

Table 7.2 (below) shows the findings of the analysis. Although there is no identical pattern across all teachers or amongst teachers within individual schools, there is some indication among different lessons for individual teachers that more French was used in co-operatively taught classes than when the teachers were alone with their pupils. Teachers B1, and P1 used more French in both of their co-operatively taught lessons than when teaching alone. Teacher C1 used more French in one of his co-operatively taught lessons than in either of the non-co-operatively taught ones. B2 used most French in the first lesson in which she was observed (which was not co-operatively taught) but used more French in the two co-operatively taught lessons than in the remaining non-co-operatively taught one. Teacher B3 used three times more French when teaching co-operatively than when teaching alone. Teacher B4, who spoke very little French at any time, nevertheless spoke twice as much French in his one co-operatively taught lesson.

Table 7.2 French as % of Total Management Language in Two Contexts.

Number in bold indicates first lesson observed

No CT = no co-operative teaching

CT = co-operatively taught lesson

	No CT 1	No CT 2	CT 1	CT 2
C1	**6 3**	7 7	7 3	9 8
C2	**2 5**	2 0	1 5	not observed
B1	5 6	5 0	**6 9**	8 2
B2	**7 3**	3 8	5 6	6 7
B3	1 1	not observed	**3 9**	not observed
B4	3	not observed	**7**	not observed
P1	3 6	2 1	**8 7**	6 8
P2	3 6	2 1	**4 2**	2 7

Although the differences in quantity of target language may be attributed to the presence of the co-operative teacher, there are a number of alternative explanations.

Firstly, the results could be totally random. Secondly, the

proportion of management French (as compared with English) may be related to the order in which the researcher observed the lessons. Teachers might have produced more French and less English at the beginning of the observation study, and less French and more English at the end if they were putting on (for the benefit of the observer) a special show which they found themselves unable to maintain throughout all lessons. Table 7.3 (below) reveals that three teachers (C2 and B3 and B4) show a descending proportion of French for management purposes from the first to last lesson observed, but for two of them (B3 and B4) the first lesson observed was also a co-operatively taught lesson. It is possible, therefore, that the higher percentage of French in the first lesson observed is attributable to the presence of the co-operative teacher. Had the lessons been observed in a different order, the co-operatively taught lesson might still have contained more French for management purposes than the lessons where the teachers were alone.

Table 7.3. Percentage of French in Lessons Arranged According to Order of Observations

Number in bold indicates co-operatively taught lessons

	FIRST	SECOND	THIRD	FOURTH
C1	6 3	**7 3**	7 7	**9 8**
C2	2 5	2 0	**1 5**	not observed
B1	**6 9**	5 6	5 0	**8 2**
B2	7 3	**5 6**	3 8	**6 7**
B3	**3 9**	not observed	1 1	not observed
B4	**7**	not observed	3	not observed
P1	**8 7**	3 6	2 1	**6 8**
P2	**4 2**	3 6	2 1	**2 7**

This theory is supported by the fact that when B3 and B4 taught co-operatively in the class of another teacher they produced more management French than they did when teaching alone with their own class (table 7.4 below). Furthermore although teachers B1, and P1 were also first observed when teaching co-operatively, they too produced more French when co-operatively teaching a second time than they did when alone with their classes.

A third possible explanation for the variation seen in the lessons relates to the nature of the activities that occurred in each lesson. Given the claim (discussed in chapter 1) that paired activities, group work and rôle play are easier to set up in co-operatively taught lessons than when the teacher is alone, it might have been expected that in the observation study more instances of such activities would have been observed in the co-operatively taught lessons. If this were so, an increase in management language (French or English) might also have been expected since the pupils would require instructions on how to perform the activity. Table 7.5 (below), however, shows that paired activities, group work, and rôle play occurred in both teaching contexts for some teachers, so it seems unlikely that the increase in French for management purposes as shown in table 7.2 can be explained on that basis.

Table 7.4 Percentage of French Uttered by Co-operating Teachers.[1]

	No CT 1	No CT 2	CT 1	CT 2
B2 (own class)	73	38	56	67
B2 (CT to B1)	-	-	83	96
B3 (own class)	11	not observed	39	not observed
B3 (CT to B2)	-	-	70	42
B3 (CT to B4)	-	-	35	not observed
B4 (own class)	3	not observed	7	not observed
B4 (CT TO B3)	-	-	9	not observed
P1 (own class)	36	21	87	68
P1 (CT TO P2)	-	-	68	52
P2 (own class)	36	21	42	27
P2 (CT TO P1)	-	-	35	50

A further possible explanation for the increased quantity of French spoken in the co-operative lessons might be the nature of the combination of teachers. Three of the teachers in the study were principal teachers (C1, B1, P1) of modern languages, and two of them taught co-operatively with unpromoted colleagues. B1 taught

[1] This table excludes teachers who were observed teaching only with their own classes. These were teachers C1, C2 and B2.

co-operatively with both B2 and B3 while P1 taught co-operatively with P2 both as class teacher with his own pupils and as co-operative teacher with the class of P2.

Since, being in a promoted post was identified in chapter 5 as a determinant of positive attitude towards the use of the target language, it might be expected that more French would be spoken in classes where a principal teacher was present. The findings of chapter 5 also suggest that the sex of the teachers might have affected the amount of French spoken.

Table 7.5 Instances of Paired Activities, Group Work and Role Play in the Observed Lessons

TEACHER	NO CT X 1	NO CT X 2	CT X 1	CT X 2
PAIRED ACTIVITIES				
C1	-	-	2	-
C2	1	-	-	no observation
B1	-	-	-	-
B2	-	2	1	-
B3	1	no observation	1	no observation
B4	-	no observation	1	no observation
P1	2	2	3	1
P2	2	1	1	4
GROUP WORK				
C1	1	1	-	1
C2	-	1	-	no observation
B1	-	-	-	1
B2	-	-		1
B3	-	no observation	-	no observation
B4	1	no observation	1	no observation
P1	-	-	-	-
P2	-	-	-	-
ROLE PLAY				
C1	1	-	-	-
C2	-	-	-	no observation
B1	-	-	1	-
B2	-	-	1	1
B3	-	no observation	-	no observation
B4	-	no observation	-	no observation
P1	1	1	-	-
P2	-	-	-	-

In order to test the hypothesis that it was indeed co-operative teaching which was the important factor in determining the

increase in the amount of French spoken in the co-operatively taught classes observed, and not any of the other factors discussed above, a multiple regression analysis was performed using the percentage of French for management purposes as the dependent variable and seven independent variables. These were: sex of the teacher(s), professional status, the order in which the lessons were observed, whether or not there was co-operative teaching in the lesson, and the number (if any) of paired, group or rôle play activities in the lesson. When those independent variables which contributed less than .05 to variance explained were removed one by one, two variables remained in the equation: co-operative teaching and being promoted, with co-operative teaching being the most important.[2]

Table 7.6 shows these two variables with their "b" coefficients which are equivalent to a percentage increase of French for management purposes. This means that, if a teacher were teaching co-operatively with another, he/she would be likely to produce 19 percent more French for management purposes than one who was not, and if the teacher were promoted he/she would be likely to produce 12.1 percent more French than one who was not.

Table 7.6 Effect of Status and Co-operative Teaching on Quantity of French

Variable	Average Effect on French spoken
co-operative teaching	19.0%
promoted	12.1%

The conclusion drawn, above, that the differences in quantity of target language in the two teaching contexts (shown in table 7.2) are attributable to co-operative teaching is, therefore, valid. However, the presence of a promoted teacher in the classroom is also of importance. This accords with the finding in chapter 5 that

[2] With two independent variables, this analysis would not be statistically significant if the N for the regression equation had been only 8 (the number of teachers in the observation study). The N was, however, 27 (the total number of lessons observed) and the results are in fact significant at the .05 level, although this is not very meaningful in the absence of a random sample.

being in a promoted post is a determinant of positive attitude towards the target language.

7.1.2 Opinion and Practice Compared

In section 7.1.0 above, based on the teachers' survey responses, it was predicted that teachers B1 and C1 would show an increase in target language use when teaching co-operatively . This prediction is borne out by the findings (table 7.2 above), although teacher C1 showed an increase in only one of the co-operatively taught lessons. The prediction that no other teacher would show an increase has been disproved.

Although it was predicted that teacher B3 would use no more French when teaching co-operatively than when teaching alone, table 7.4 (above) shows that she spoke more than three times as much French when teaching co-operatively with teacher B4 both as class teacher and as co-operative teacher, and almost seven times as much French when working as co-operative teacher with B1. The difference in B3's use of the target language when working with B4 and with B1 suggests that the nature of the co-operating team may be critical in determining the amount of target language used in the classroom. Teacher B1, who was shown in chapter 6 to use a considerable amount of target language in his own classroom, appears to have had a much more positive effect on B3's use of the target language than teacher B4 who was shown to use very little French. The importance of the composition of the co-operative team is discussed at greater length in chapter 9.

Teachers P1 and P2 were observed teaching co-operatively together on four separate occasions, twice each as regular class teacher, and twice as co-operative teacher. Table 7.4 (above) shows that P1 used substantially more French when teaching co-operatively with P2 than he did when alone with his pupils. He also spoke more French when teaching co-operatively with his own class than he did when performing the role of co-operative teacher in P2's class. Teacher P2 on the other hand spoke more French when

teaching co-operatively in the class of P1 than at any time with her own class. This finding may be a reflection of the fact that it is the main class teacher who is in control and directs the class activities.[3] Consequently, if the class teacher speaks in English to the co-operative teacher, it would be inappropriate for the latter to respond in French.

7.2 Communicative Target Language as a % of Class Time

Since communicative target language input appears to be a necessary condition for language acquisition (see chapter 1 for discussion of this), an important question to be addressed is to what extent co-operative teaching resulted, in the observed lessons, in an overall increase in communicative target language input. If the amount of communicative French spoken by both class teacher and co-operative teacher is calculated as a percentage of the total class time, an increase of target language is shown to have occurred in most co-operatively taught lessons (table 7.7 below), although in no lesson was the amount of communicative target language very high. Nevertheless, the presence of B3, for example, in the class of B4's class provided an increase of 700%. Co-operative teaching may have provided these learners with the only communicative target language to which they were ever exposed.

7.3 Does Co-operative Teaching Increase Teacher Talk?

Since co-operative teaching can increase the proportion of French for classroom management purposes, and the total amount of communicative target language input in a lesson, an appropriate

[3] All teachers in the observation study stated in interview that the class teacher has responsibility for dictating what happens in the classroom in terms of activities and the relative roles of the two teachers. Teacher B1 mentioned the fine line between allowing the co-operative teacher enough leeway to contribute fully to the lesson, and preventing them from taking over completely and undermining the point of the lesson. This problem of control, which was encountered in the class of teacher B3, is discussed later in this chapter. Seven of the eight teachers stated that pupil discipline should be shared equally between the co-operating teachers.

question to ask is whether it also increases total teacher talk? An increase in teacher talk would mean a reduction in class time in which the pupils could use the foreign language themselves. Since pupil practice has been identified in chapter 1 as a necessary condition for the development of communicative competence, this might not be a desirable result.

Table 7.7 Total Communicative French Discourse as a % of Class Time in Two Contexts[4]

	No CT	No CT	CT	CT
B1	16	18	20	23
B2	28	16	31	25
B3	5	not observed	15	not observed
B4	0.6	not observed	7	not observed
P1	8	6	15	12
P2	11	6	14	17

Table 7.8 shows that the total amount of management language differs very little from context to context.[5] Teachers who talk a lot when they are alone with their class tend to speak slightly less when teaching co-operatively, but the combined amount of talk of class and co-operative teacher is similar to the amount when the teacher is alone.

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[4] This table excludes teachers C1 and C2 because the discourse of the co-operative teacher (a native speaker of French) was not recorded in their lessons. The justification for this was that since the study concerned the effect of co-operative teaching on the foreign language discourse of **non-native** French teachers, the discourse of native speakers was of no interest. In retrospect, it is unfortunate that the recordings were not made since it would not only have supplied more complete data for table 7.5, but it would also have provided interesting data on the degree to which a native French speaker breaks into the native language of his students when teaching in a foreign rather than a second language context.

[5] The co-operative teacher's discourse was not recorded in Cooper High school, so the percentage of class time devoted to her speech cannot be calculated (see footnote 4). In the class of teacher C1 the co-operative teacher was well integrated into the lesson. She not only provided linguistic prompts during language practice, but was also involved in classroom organisation, and in monitoring group work. However, her total contribution to teacher talk was not judged to be any greater than that of co-operative teachers in other classes. In the class of C2, by contrast, the co-operative teacher contributed very little to the lesson, namely 18 speech turns out of 171, of which 16 were linguistic prompts.

Table 7.8 Percentage of Lessons Devoted to Teacher Talk

* Since the co-operative teacher's discourse was not recorded in Cooper High school, combined quantities of teacher and co-operative teacher discourse cannot be calculated for teachers C1 and C2

	PERCENTAGE OF LESSON DEVOTED TO TEACHER TALK			
	No CT 1	No CT 2	CT 1	CT 2
C1*	28	20	19	20
C2*	38	22	23	no data
B1	28	36	25	24
Co-op teacher (B3)	-	-	8	7
TOTAL	28	36	33	31
B2	38	42	29	30
Co-op teacher (B1)	-	-	19	6
TOTAL	38	42	48	36
B3	45	not observed	23	not observed
Co-op teacher (B4)	-	-	8	
TOTAL	45		31	
B4	22	not observed	14	not observed
Co-op teacher (B3)	-	-	15	not observed
TOTAL	22		29	
P1	29	31	21	24
Co-op teacher (P2)	-	-	4	9
TOTAL	29	31	25	33
P2 (own class)	23	39	28	22
Co-op teacher (P1)	-	-	10	13
TOTAL	23	39	38	33

This finding suggests that learners may have just as much opportunity to use the language in co-operatively taught lessons as they do when they are alone with their class teacher.

However, since the methodology used to time the relative amounts of French and English management language combines all other discourse (teacher's linguistic prompts, pupil discourse in English and in French) and silence in the classroom, it is not possible (without a different coding system) to say to what extent learners were afforded such opportunities in the lessons observed.

7.4 Effect of CT on Language for Specific Tasks

To calculate accurately the effect of co-operative teaching on teachers' choice of language for specific classroom management tasks, the exact quantity of French and English used for every instance of every activity would have had to be timed. Since, in this study, amounts of French and English were timed at the level of the segment, and not at the level of the individual move, it is only possible to compare the language used for relatively lengthy segments of discourse. Table 7.9 (below) shows that, in general, organisation that takes place at the beginning of the lesson is more frequently performed in the target language than organisation which takes place at the end. Perhaps this is because teachers are more tired, and pupils more disruptive, at the end of a lesson. It may also be because it is at the end of the lesson that homework is issued, and (as has already been discussed) tends to be performed in English. Nevertheless, teachers B2, B3 and P2 used more French for organisation at the end of the lesson when teaching co-operatively than when teaching alone. In the case of teacher B3 this constituted an increase of 66%.

Two other large percentage differences are worthy of comment. Firstly, it is interesting to note that teacher C2 used substantially less French during language practice activities when teaching co-

operatively than she did when teaching alone with her class. In Cooper High the co-operative teacher was a native-speaking foreign language assistant (FLA). During language practice activities in the only co-operatively taught lesson observed with this teacher, C2 tended to repeat verbatim and, on occasion, translate into English what the FLA said, despite the fact that the latter was using language that the learners had practised, and should have been able to understand without much difficulty. It appeared as if C2 felt that her pupils would not understand native French and so felt obliged to act as interpreter. This anomaly was not observed in the class of C1 who also taught co-operatively with the FLA.

Secondly, teacher P1 used 50% more French in co-operatively taught lessons when monitoring his pupils during paired activities than he did when alone. It is possible that P1 may have been attempting to counteract his co-operative teacher's excessive use of English. As discussed in chapter 6, Teacher P2, who was the co-operating teacher in this class, tended to use the monitoring sessions as an excuse to chat in English with the pupils.

Table 7.9 Percentages of French for Different Activities in Two Teaching Contexts

Figures in bold indicate co-operatively taught lessons

Figures underlined indicate an increase or decrease of at least 50%

ACTIVITY	C1	C2	B1	B2	B3	B4	P1	P2
Organisation (pre-lesson)	98 **99**	57 **36**	-- **99**	94 **81**	--	-- **00**	-- 100 **87**	49 **18**
Organisation (post lesson)	43 **33**	08 **05**	69 **68**	42 **64**	04 **72**	-- --	01 **08**	24 **64**
Language practice	100 **96**	66 **08**	48 **75**	64 **88**	09 **66**	04 **13**	37 **83**	38 **46**
Monitoring	67 **96**	07 --	-- **91**	17 **53**	11 **12**	00 **13**	37 **87**	32 **47**
Written exercise	22 **59**	-- --	62 **83**	31 **83**	-- --	-- --	00 **14**	08 --
Game	100 **100**	-- --	74 **91**	83 **95**	-- 82	-- --	31 --	-- --

Because of the methodology used to time the relative amounts of French and English in the lessons observed, the conclusions drawn above about the effect of co-operative teaching on teachers' choice of language for specific management tasks must remain tentative.

7.5 Quantity of Target Language: Conclusion

The first research question asked:

> to what extent (if any) does teaching with a second fluent target language speaker (a co-operative teacher) increase the quantity of "communicative" target language used by the teacher(s)?

From the observation study data discussed above, it seems reasonable to conclude that co-operative teaching has (in the lessons observed) had a positive effect on the quantity of French for management purposes spoken by the majority of teachers in the study. Furthermore, the finding that being in a promoted post is positively related to the amount of French spoken in the language classroom helps to validate the causal model in chapter 5 which showed that promotion was a determinant of positive attitude among survey respondents towards the use of target language as the medium of instruction.

7.6 Research Question 2

7.6.0 Sample and Methodology

Chapter 1 discussed the importance of providing language learners with input containing more grammatical structures than are normally available to them in syllabus speak. In this section, the second main research question of the study is addressed, namely:

> to what extent (if any) does teaching with a second fluent target language speaker (a co-operative teacher) improve the quality of the teachers' "communicative" target language in

terms of diversity verbs and variety of grammatical structures?

To answer this question, an analysis of the number, variety and morphology of verbs in four lessons was undertaken to examine quantitatively the effect of co-operative teaching on the quality of teachers foreign language input. The justification for focusing on verbs rather than on vocabulary in general, the method of analysis employed in the study, and the choice of sample were discussed at length in chapter 2, but are summarised again here.

Four lessons only were analysed for quality of teacher discourse. The four lessons chosen were those of teacher B2 teaching both alone and co-operatively with B1. There were three reasons for choosing this particular set of lessons. Firstly, there was insufficient data for other co-operating pairs. Secondly, teachers B1 and B2 were the only ones who chatted to each other systematically in the foreign language, so it was possible that an analysis would show that their discourse included language that went beyond syllabus speak. Thirdly, teacher B1 spoke very little English when co-operatively teaching with B2 (an average of 10% of management language over two lessons) so the combined quantity of French for the two teachers was likely to be considerable.

Quality of language was analysed by focusing on the verb systems used by the main classroom teacher and his/her co-operative teacher. This methodology was chosen in part because it had been implemented by Mitchell and Johnstone (1986) in very similar circumstances to the present study, and in part because it was felt that an analysis of verb forms would reveal more variation than an analysis of lexis.

7.6.1 Findings: Variation in Individual Verbs

An analysis of the variation in verbs which occurred in the four lessons of teacher B2 is shown in table 7.10 below. Verbs uttered only in co-operatively taught lessons appear in bold, those produced

by the co-operative teacher alone are also underlined, and those spoken only by the class teacher are asterisked. Verbs in plain style were used by both teachers at some point in the observed lessons.

Table 7.10 Verbs (displayed in infinitive form) Uttered by Class Teacher and Co-operative Teacher in Four Lessons

Verbs in bold uttered in co-operatively taught lessons only
Verbs in bold and underlined uttered by co-operative teacher only
* Indicates verbs uttered by class teacher only

1	**adorer**	30	*crier	59	**falloir**	88	**ranger**
2	*aider	31	**désirer**	60	*fermer	89	**recommencer**
3	aimer	32	**descendre**	61	*finir	90	**réfléchir**
4	*accompagner	33	**se déshabiller**	62	gagner	91	*regarder
5	*ajouter	34	***dessiner**	63	*habiter	92	**regretter**
6	aller	35	détester	64	**indiquer**	93	**remercier**
7	s'amuser	36	deviner	65	**laisser**	94	répéter
8	s'appeler	37	devoir	66	**laisser tomber**	95	*répondre
9	**apporter**	38	dire	67	se lever	96	**se reposer**
10	**s'arrêter**	39	disparaître	68	*lire	97	**représenter**
11	**arriver**	40	**distribuer**	69	manger	98	***rester**
12	s'asseoir	41	**donner**	70	manquer	99	**rêver**
13	avoir	42	**dormir**	71	**marcher**	100	**revenir**
14	**avoir l'air**	43	écouter	72	**mettre**	101	**rire**
15	*avoir besoin	44	écrire	73	*monter	102	savoir
16	*avoir de la chance	45	**enregistrer**	74	*montrer	103	sortir
17	**avoir faim**	46	**entendre**	75	oublier	104	**suivre**
18	***avoir mal**	47	***entrer**	76	*ouvrir	105	tenir
19	*avoir raison	48	***s'ennuyer**	77	parler	106	*tourner
20	***baisser**	49	**espérer**	78	***partir**	107	travailler
21	**bavarder**	50	**essayer**	79	***passer**	108	*tricher
22	changer	51	***essuyer**	80	penser	109	**trouver**
23	*chanter	52	être	81	*perdre	110	venir
24	chercher	53	*étudier	82	***plaisanter**	111	voir
25	*choisir	54	**s'excuser**	83	poser	112	vouloir
26	*commencer	55	faire	84	pouvoir	113	**vouloir dire**
27	comprendre	56	faire attention	85	***pratiquer**		
28	continuer	57	***faire chaud**	86	**prendre**		
29	**se coucher**	58	**faire cuire**	87	*présenter		

Of the 113 verbs which were uttered in the four lessons, 52 were produced in the co-operatively taught lessons only. Of these, 12 were uttered by the class teacher alone, and 23 by the co-operative teacher alone. This latter number constitutes an increase of 26% over the total number of verbs uttered by the class teacher across the four lessons. It should be added however, that with the

exception of the verb "vouloir dire" in the phrase "qu'est-ce que ca veut dire?" which the co-operative teacher produced on fourteen occasions in the first of the two co-operatively taught lessons, most of these verbs were uttered once or twice only. It is unlikely, therefore, that they would have much effect on the learners' acquisition of the target language unless the two teachers were to use them on a regular basis in subsequent co-operatively taught lessons. This, of course, cannot be verified in this study.

Appendix G shows the full list of verbs together with the frequency of their occurrences in the four lessons.

Table 7.11 (below) shows that 31 (62%) of the verbs which were uttered in the co-operatively taught lessons alone do not appear in the pupils' course book "Tour de France", and almost half of these are absent from Le Français Fondamental (Premier Degré) on which the syllabus of Tour de France Stage One is based. Of the 23 verbs uttered by the co-operative teacher alone, 87% are additional to the syllabus of Tour de France, and 75% of these are absent from le Français Fondamental (Premier Degré).

Of the 12 verbs uttered by the class teacher alone, 6 do not appear in Tour de France Stage One, and 5 of the 6 are absent from le Français Fondamental (Premier Degré).

The findings of tables 7.10 and 7.11 clearly show that co-operative teaching has, in the four lessons analysed, substantially increased the diversity of verbs to which the learners were exposed when they were taught by their class teacher alone, and, furthermore, that a large percentage of the additional verbs went beyond the confines of the course book syllabus.

7.6.2 Findings: Diversity of Grammatical Structures

The next question to be addressed is to what extent (if any) did co-operative teaching affect the diversity of grammatical structures of the verbs uttered by the two teachers. Table 7.12 (below) shows

that the variety of tenses and impersonal forms occurring in the lessons in the two teaching contexts — with and without a co-operative teacher — differed very little. In both cases the present tense predominated.

Table 7.11 Verbs Uttered Only in Co-operatively Taught Lessons

Verbs underlined were uttered by co-operative teacher only

* verb not in *Tour de France* Stage One

\+ verb not in le Français Fondamental Premier Degré [6]

	adorer	*	descendre	*	essayer		partir		représenter
	apporter	*	se déshabiller	*	essuyer		passer		rester
	s'arrêter		dessiner	*	s'excuser	*+	plaisanter	* +	rêver
	arriver		distribuer	*	faire chaud	*+	pratiquer	* +	revenir
*+	avoir l'air	*	donner	*	+faire cuire		prendre	*	rire
	avoir faim	*	dormir	*	falloir		ranger	*	suivre
*+	avoir mal		enregistrer	*	+indiquer	*	recommencer		trouver
	baisser		entendre	*	laisser	* +	réfléchir	* +	vouloir dire
	bavarder		entrer	*+	laisser tomber	*+	regretter		
*	se coucher	*+	s'ennuyer	*	marcher	* +	remercier		
*+	désirer	*	espérer		mettre	*	se reposer		

7.6.3 Quality of Target Language: Summary

The findings of the quantitative analysis of the effect of co-operative teaching on the quality of teachers' foreign language discourse must be considered as tentative. Although in the four lessons analysed there was an increase in the variety of verbs to which the learners were exposed, the occurrence of each verb was restricted to once or twice across all four lessons. Furthermore, there was virtually no difference in the variety of the grammatical structures in the two contexts. These findings suggest that, in these lessons, the difference in input quality would be unlikely to

[6] Verbs which are intended for internalisation in Tour de France Stage One are taken from Le Français Fondamental (Premier Degré) which was originally written to provide a syllabus of correct French to be used as the "première étape dans l'étude du français" — the first step in the study of French — (Ministère de l'Education Nationale, 1954: 6).

affect the learners' language acquisition. Learners might however acquire the additional verbs if the teachers re-used them in subsequent lessons. This study should be considered as a pilot case-study, designed to set up a workable methodology. To establish more definitively to what extent co-operative teaching improves the quality of target language input, and to what extent such an improvement might have on language acquisition, a longitudinal study of a larger variety of co-operating teaching pairs would be necessary.

What can be said, on the basis of this study, is that, in addition to increasing the quantity of management French produced by the teachers observed, co-operative teaching can provide opportunities for exposing learners to a variety of verbs and vocabulary which go beyond the confines of the course book syllabus. It is clear, however, that not all co-operating pairs will necessarily take advantage of this possibility. The degree to which teachers varied in this respect is discussed below in section 7.7.

Table 7.12 Morphology of Verbs in Two Teaching Contexts

TENSES	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL VERB FORMS IN EACH LESSON			
	NOCT	NOCT	CT	CT
Imperative	13%	22%	24%	17%
Present tense	46%	53%	57%	71%
Perfect tense	8%	9%	7%	4%
Imperfect tense	2%	1 instance	1 instance	1 instance
Conditional tense	-	-	-	1 instance
pluperfect tense	1 instance	-	2 instances	
Infinitives	13%	15%	11%	8%

IMPERSONAL FORMS	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL IMPERSONAL FORMS IN EACH LESSON			
	NOCT	NOCT	CT	CT
qu'est-ce que ca veut dire	-	-	7%	1 instance
ça (ne) va (pas)	2 instances	-	11%	6%
il (n') y a (pas)	1 instance	1 instance	11%	16%
c'est (ce n'est pas)	69%	98%	68%	52%
n'est-ce pas	2%	-	-	3%
qu'est-ce que c'est	23%	-	9%	10%
ça s'écrit	-	-	1 instance	-
c'était	2%	-	2%	-
ça fait	2%	-	-	-
il faut	-	-	3%	2%

7.6.4 Case Study Comparison

In chapter 2 (section 2.7.2), the methodology for analysing quality of teacher language in the Co-operative Teaching Study was justified partly on the grounds that it had been implemented by Mitchell and Johnstone (1986) in very similar circumstances, and so it would be possible to make a comparison between the two studies. Comparable findings are discussed in this section.

During academic session 1982-83, five years before the Co-operative Teaching Study, Mitchell and Johnstone (1986) conducted a longitudinal case study of the "Routinization of Communicative Methodology" of one teacher of French in a Scottish secondary school. The teacher, a native speaker of English, was chosen because she was known to be "a fluent speaker of French, and an effective promoter of its use for a variety of communicative purpose in the classroom" (Mitchell and Johnstone, 1986: 124). The researcher observed and audio-recorded one lesson per week for thirty weeks during which time the learners covered 4 units of the course book *Tour de France.* A sample of 7 lessons, occurring at approximately five week intervals, were transcribed and analysed for verb variation and morphology.

Mitchell and Johnstone's findings show considerable similarity to those of the Co-operative Teaching case-study discussed above. Seventy-seven of the verbs uttered in the four lessons of teachers B2 also occurred in the lessons of Teacher X in Mitchell and Johnstone's study. In teacher B2's lessons, 36 verbs (15 of which were uttered by the co-operative teacher alone) were absent from the lessons of Teacher X, while 42 verbs in the lessons of Teacher X did not occur in the lessons of B2. Table 7.13 below displays the additional verbs which occurred in more than one lesson in the classes of each teacher.

When a suggested function is provided for each verb, a pattern emerges which might suggest that Teacher X was more committed

to using the target language for activity instructions and discipline than teacher B2. This interpretation of the findings, however, is probably invalid. Mitchell and Johnstone (1986: 141) state that, across the seven observed lessons of teacher X, instructions were given in French on only seventeen occasions, while almost half of all instructions were conducted entirely in English.

Table 7.13 Case Study Comparison. Additional Verbs Occurring in More Than One Lesson.

* verb not in *Tour de France* Stage One
\+ verb not in le Français Fondamental Premier Degré
Verbs underlined were uttered by co-operative teacher only

TEACHER X (MITCHELL AND JOHNSTONE, 1986). OCCURRENCES OVER 7 LESSONS

Verb		Frequency	Number of Lessons	Glossary	Function
attendre	*	37	7	wait	instructions
bouger	* +	2	2	move	discipline
se calmer	* +	3	2	calm down	discipline
contrôler	* +	2	2	control	instructions
copier	* +	9	2	copy	instructions
corriger	* +	16	3	correct	instructions
demander	*	11	4	ask	instructions
se dépêcher		33	7	hurry up	discipline
effacer	*	10	3	erase	instructions
enlever		6	3	remove	instructions
expliquer	*	13	4	explain	explanation
partager	*	7	2	share	instructions
plaire		117	7	please	chat
se retourner	*	5	2	turn around	instruct/discip
reviser	* +	3	2	revise	instructions
suffir	* +	35	7	be enough	discipline
se taire		3	2	be quiet	discipline

TEACHER B1 (CO-OPERATIVE TEACHING STUDY). OCCURRENCES OVER 4 LESSONS

Verb		Frequency	Number of Lessons	Glossary	Function
ajouter	*	6	3	add	instructions
avoir faim		7	2	be hungry	chat
devoir	*	11	4	have to	instructions
faire attention	*	5	4	pay attention	discipline
laisser	*	3	2	let/leave	instructions
monter	*	5	2	raise	instructions
montrer	*	5	2	show	instructions
vouloir dire	*	15	2	mean	meaning

Furthermore, in teacher B2's class problems of indiscipline were rare, so it is difficult to know which language she would have used.

An alternative explanation in the difference in variety of verbs produced by teachers B2 and X may be their relative fluency in the target language. Teacher X was chosen for Mitchell and Johnstone's study because of her known competence in teaching through the medium of the target language, while teacher B2 was originally selected for practical reasons. Although B2 rated herself as "fluent and confident" in French, she was observed to have a markedly Scottish accent, and on a number of occasions employed unidiomatic expressions. For example, she repeatedly said "je n'écoute pas - I am not listening" when it was evident that she meant that she was unable to hear the pupil.

A third possible explanation for the variation in verbs concerns the fact that teacher X's 7 lessons occurred over a thirty week period, while teacher B4's four lessons occurred in the space of a week. It is likely that a teacher's use of the target language will change over time . Only four of the seventeen verbs uttered by teacher X occurred in all seven of the lessons. This suggests that only these verbs were routinized into her vocabulary.

While there is some difference in the variety of verbs uttered by the two teachers, a comparison of verb tenses used by teachers B2 and X reveal a very similar pattern. In fact, the percentage frequencies across all analysed lessons (7 in Mitchell and Johnstone's study and 4 in the Co-operative Teaching Study), show a correlation of 0.97. Table 7.14 shows that in both cases the imperative and present tense predominated. Since much of classroom foreign language discourse tends to concern present events, this finding is unsurprising. It is largely in informal chat that past and future events can be discussed, and informal chat was shown in the observation study to constitute a very small

percentage of class time. Moreover, the course book *Tour de France*, which was used by both teachers, does not formally deal with past or future tenses in Book 1. Almost all instances of these tenses occur in the personal language section of the book which is designed to help learners to communicate effectively about classroom matters, for example, "j'ai oublié mon cahier". However, as has been noted elsewhere in this thesis, student-initiated discourse in the target language was uncommon in the Co-operative Teaching Study. This aspect of classroom discourse was not discussed by Mitchell and Johnstone (1986).

Table 7.14. Case-study Comparison. Verb Tenses in Teachers' Speech.

	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL VERBS IN ANALYSED LESSONS	
TENSE	TEACHER X	TEACHER B1/B2)
Imperative	22%	23%
Present	42%	58%
Perfect	4%	6.5%
Imperfect	0.5%	0.6%
Pluperfect	-	3 instances
Future	2 instances	-
Infinitives	7%	11%

A comparison of the findings of Mitchell and Johnstone and the Co-operative Teaching Study with respect to quality of teacher language, has revealed little variation between the two teachers. This finding is particularly interesting given the differences between the two studies. Firstly they took place five years apart, in different regions of Scotland. Secondly one study was longitudinal while the other was cross-sectional. Finally, the participants in each case were chosen on the basis of very different criteria. The similarity in language quality in the two studies suggests that the findings may be typical of foreign language discourse in Scottish secondary schools using *Tour de France* as their course book. Further research is needed to investigate the extent to which the findings are generalisable to a wider population of teachers teaching in the same context.

7.7 Extension and Restriction of Communicative TL Input

7.7.0 Introduction

A number of positive attempts to improve the quality of the communicative target language input to which the learners were exposed were observed in the study. These occurred almost exclusively in co-operatively taught lessons where the class teacher was able to take advantage of a second fluent speaker to initiate conversations which used language beyond the productive ability of the learners. By contrast, attempts to restrict the input to what the learners already knew and understood tended to occur when the teacher was alone with his/her class. Examples of both extension and restriction of target language input are discussed below.

7.7.1 Extension of Communicative Target Language Input

(i) Informal Chat

Teacher B2 when alone with her class, and when teaching co-operatively with B1, was observed to make an effort to chat informally in French about the pupils' real life at the outset of her lessons. She used the excuse of a school visit to the Glasgow Garden Festival to introduce the verb s'amuser and to practice the perfect tense, asking in French whether or not the pupils had enjoyed the visit: "on s'est bien amusé au festival des jardins et des plantes?", and teasing one pupil who did not attend the festival because he had missed the bus: "tu as manqué l'autobus?". In the second co-operatively taught lesson, when pupils arrived from cookery class teachers B1 and B2 discussed what the pupils had cooked: "qu'est-ce qu'on a fait cuire aujourd'hui?", and whether or not it was safe to accept invitations to try one "ils ne sont pas empoisonnés, non?".

In Porter Secondary school Teacher P1 during a co-operatively taught lesson made an occasion of the fact that a pupil had admitted that his dog had eaten his exercise book.

T Le chien, woof woof a mangé, ton cahier, aw ça...
CT Ah non
T C'est un petit chien ou un grand chien?
P (incomprehensible)
T Un petit chien a mangé un grand cahier!
CT Le cahier d'activités!
T Avec du sel et du poivre?
P (incomprehensible)
T Non? avec un couteau et une fourchette comme ça? Non? Bien, il a mangé le cahier. Ça alors. Tiens, ouvre le placard. Tiens, voici la clef. Il y a un cahier dedans.

In this way the pupils were exposed to new vocabulary and the use of the perfect tense in a totally natural and communicative manner.

Attempts to bring instances of real life into the language practice part of the lesson were also observed in the classes of P1 and P2 when teaching co-operatively together. The language practice concerned the names of rooms and a limited set of furniture and kitchen appliances. Pupils were invited to ask the co-operative teacher (P2) about her house. P2 made no attempt to water down her description to include only words the pupils knew. On the contrary, additional vocabulary which appeared in the "Extra Language" section in the teachers' book, were introduced; for example cuisinière" (cooker), "congélateur" (freezer), and "évier" (basin). To ensure that the pupils understood the meaning of these new words the teachers gave endless explanations sometimes entirely in French, and sometimes in a mixture of French and English.

CT Dans la cuisine il y a une cuisinière
T Electrique ou à gaz?
CT Electrique, oui. Il y a un frigo et un congélateur en-dessous pour les glaces.
T Alors qu'est-ce que c'est un congélateur?
CT On met les glaces dans le congélateur. Voilà le frigo et en-dessous, sous le frigo il y a le congélateur. On met la glace yum,yum, dans le congélateur
T Qu'est-ce que c'est un congélateur? Il y a un frigo ...
CT Oui un frigo là et en dessous, sous le frigo il y a un congélateur
T Et dans le congélateur il fait froid
CT Oh il fait très froid brrr. Brr c'est pour la glace
P A freezer?

CT Oui c'est ça, bien

(ii) Rôle play

Role play was observed in the classes of teachers C1, P1, B1 and B2. Teachers C1 and P1, who organised rôle play when alone with their classes, used it as a way to practice known vocabulary and structures. By contrast, in the co-operatively taught lessons teachers B1 and B2 took advantage of the second fluent speaker in their class to extend the script to which the pupils were expected to adhere. For example, teacher B2, with B1 co-operating, included in her rehearsal of a removal day an amusing exchange concerning what sort of drink the house owner (B1) should offer the removal man (B2) : tea, coffee, beer, wine. The pupils were invited to give their opinions. On another occasion in his own class teacher B1, in a rôle play set in a café, discussed with B3 their interest in music, using vocabulary and structures that the learners could not be expected to produce when it was their turn to perform.

(iii) Banter and Backchat Between Teachers

Humorous exchanges between co-operating teachers also served to expose the learners to vocabulary which went beyond syllabus speak. For example, teacher B2 attempted to get B1 to sit on a tack which had been found by one of the pupils. This kind of amusing exchange was also seen in the classes of teachers P1 and P2 but here much of the banter was in English.

7.7.2 Restriction of Communicative Target Language Input

(i) Discouraging Gist Comprehension

At the end of Tour de France Stage One, there is an extended listening exercise in which a number of French pupils talk about themselves. At the back of the pupils' activity books, the tape-script is given with an introduction in English which says among other things that:

> There will be some words you don't understand. Don't let that put you off - it happens all the time in foreign-language learning! Just listen carefully - there is a lot you will

understand, and you may be able to guess the meaning of some new words

(*Tour de France* Stage One, Workbook, 1982:84)

The teachers' book instructions for this exercise says that the purpose of this listening exercise is:

1. To expose learners even at this early stage to *authentic* passages for listening.

2. To "stimulate their *guessing* strategies since much of what is heard will be new.

3. To offer scope for *gist extraction* as it will be unnecessary to understand the full detail of these passages

4. To provide additional *real 'background' information* about life in Créteil. In Tour de France we see good reason to start off the *Paris* topics with background in English. These *Paris* 'Extra!' passages will correct the balance by providing a great deal of substantive, new information in French.

(*Tour de France* Stage One, Teachers' book, 1982: 134).

In other words, the exercise was designed to expose the learners to communicative target language, recorded by real French people in France.

Teacher B4 paid no attention to these instructions. Instead, he had the pupils first read the tapescript while listening to the tape, then write down the unknown words in French and in English (which are given at the end of the pupils' workbook), and finally translate word for word what was said. In this way he was training his pupils to believe that to understand the foreign language, it is essential that every word be understood. Since being able to extract the gist of what is being said is an important part of communication in the real world, it is difficult to envisage how these pupils would cope in the foreign language outside the artificial environment of the classroom.

(ii) Telling the Truth in the Foreign Language

One of the language objectives of *Tour de France* Stage 1 is that the learners should be able to talk about themselves and express opinions. Consequently, they are taught how to say their name, their age, where they live and so on, and to express likes and dislikes. The teachers' book gives sufficient extension vocabulary to enable each learner, for example, to describe accurately his/her pet animal or his/her exact feelings about school subjects or a particular pop singer. There should be no reason, therefore, why a pupil should be obliged to say that his pet is a dog when in fact it is a ferret (un furet), or to say that he loves French when he thinks it is boring.

In the observation study, however attempts to restrict the learners' vocabulary so that they were obliged to tell untruths about themselves were observed in some classes. Teacher B4 had his pupils learn off by heart a short description of themselves modelled on those of the French pupils in the listening exercise at the end of Stage One. Since this involved describing their father and mother's job (a language point not covered in Stage One) he had them say that their fathers were postmen, and their mothers secretaries or "concierges". It surely would have been a simple matter (with the help of a dictionary) to supply the pupils with the appropriate vocabulary to tell the truth.

Teacher C2 restricted her learners' use of the foreign language by insisting that they answer in different ways so as to practice vocabulary despite the fact that they were not expressing their true opinion. She said: "it's got to be something different, we've had the same thing twice". While there may be a case for insisting on this at the vocabulary learning stage, there seemed to be no good reason for requiring the learners to give anything other than their true opinion on this occasion since the exercise was a rehearsal for a rôle play in a café in which the learners were to talk to each other about themselves.

A further example of this vocabulary restriction was refusing to

give vocabulary on demand because it was not part of the syllabus. Teacher B2 was unwilling to tell a pupil the French word for "the stairs" so that the latter could label a drawing of her house more completely, because this word did not come into the lesson:

> Just use the words you know in French, don't think of any new complicated ones. Don't bother about the stairs, just leave the staircase just now and draw the plan of the floors.
>
> Teacher B2

This did not happen in all classes. During the same co-operatively taught lesson teacher B1 (the co-operating teacher) was happy to give "le placard" and to spell it in French. In Cooper High school, teacher C1 was observed to supply the adjective “gris” to describe hair colour despite the fact that it was not part of the syllabus. However, teacher C1 displayed concern on a different occasion when unknown words came into the lesson by accident.

> There was a point in the lesson on Wednesday when Véronique [the foreign language assistant] introduced something that hadn't been introduced at that point but she quickly glossed over it. . . I didn't notice the class's reaction. I daresay they didn't even pick it up, but there is a script and you try to keep to it wherever possible.
>
> Teacher C1

It is surprising that teacher C1 was so concerned about this incident since he stated in his response to the principal teachers' questionnaire that he was aware that "we learn a second language in much the same way as we learn out mother tongue, i.e. by hearing it around us continuously." If he were truly abreast of second language acquisition research, one might have expected him to realise that his learners (a) could benefit from exposure to additional vocabulary but (b) in any event would be unlikely to acquire what they were exposed to on one occasion only.

There is reason to believe that other teachers in the co-operative teaching study might not have been totally abreast of current language acquisition theory. Firstly, when asked whether or not

they would expect pupils to pick up errors made by their teachers, 34% of all survey respondents thought that it was likely, and 34% fairly likely. Only one of the 201 respondents added the comment that the errors would have to be consistently made over a period of time for the learner to have any likelihood of acquiring them. Of the eight teachers in the observation study, two thought it very likely (C1 and B3), 5 thought it fairly likely, and one thought it fairly unlikely (B1) that learners would pick up the errors of their teachers. In fact, the only consistent error in the observation study teachers' discourse was C1's pronunciation of masculine adjectives. When saying "il est grand" or il est petit, he consistently pronounced the final consonant. This pronunciation is consistent with a south of France accent (C1 spent three months in Pau near the Spanish border), but it would nevertheless be considered an error in the speech of his pupils.

A second indication that teachers knew little about language acquisition emerged when the observed teachers were asked in the in-depth interview to explain their understanding of the term "communicative competence". The majority view was that it means "the ability at whatever level they [the pupils] are at to understand and communicate" (Teacher P1). None of the eight teachers made reference to the notion or appropriateness of language, while two teachers stated explicitly that accuracy was unimportant.

(iii) Discourse in English between Co-operating Teachers

Although instances of teacher talk in the foreign language were observed as a means of practising unknown vocabulary and structures, most "real" communication between co-operating teachers took place in English. Discussion at the start of the lesson about what the teachers would do with the class was conducted exclusively in English, even with the foreign language assistant who was a native speaker of French. Although this discussion occurred on some occasions before the lessons had begun, pupils were usually present. By speaking in English the teachers were not only failing to exploit the potential for real foreign language communication in the

classroom, but were also endorsing the notion that English is used "when you have something real to say..." while French is used for language practice and other "unreal things" Clark (1981:53).

Some teachers made an effort to speak to one another in French once the lesson had begun. Teachers B1 and B2 almost always did so, while teachers P1 and P2 did so about 50% of the time. Teacher C2 spoke exclusively in English to the FLA during the lesson, and although teacher B3 communicated in French when co-operatively teaching with teacher B1, she always spoke in English to B4 .

Speaking in English to the co-operative teacher (and to classroom visitors who interrupt the lesson) is a missed opportunity to exploit a situation where the foreign language can be shown to be a real means of communication, and not just a subject like any other that the pupils are obliged to learn in school.

7.8 Input and Intake

In chapter 1, Corder's (1981) distinction between input and intake was discussed, namely the notion that the target language data to which learners are exposed is not necessarily assimilated by them. The best way to judge whether or not target language input has become intake is to test the pupils' knowledge after the lessons. In the absence of an opportunity to carry out such systematic testing, however, the question that is addressed in this study is to what extent target language input, which included unknown vocabulary and structures, was made comprehensible in the observed classes, and was, therefore, available as intake.

Although, in the observation study, translation into English was the most frequently used method for ensuring the learners' comprehension of new vocabulary and structures, simplification strategies such as repetition and gesture did occur in some classes. The few examples of these happened almost exclusively during co-operatively taught lessons involving teachers B1 and P1. Humour

and different tones of voice were also used by these teachers and their co-operative colleagues to contextualise new language.

It should be noted that repetition alone may not be sufficient to make input comprehensible. Teacher B2 used the verb "commencer" (to begin) 12 times in the first lesson in which she was observed teaching alone, and a further 6 times during her second co-operatively taught lesson, part of which is shown in appendix E. However, unless B2 marked her utterances in some respect so that the learners' attention was drawn to them, it is possible that the verb "commencer" would not have been assimilated by them. Marking an utterance might be achieved through tone of voice, or gesture, or simply by contextualisation. B2's use of "commencer" was contextualised by the fact that she repeatedly said it at the beginning of new activities, as in "je commence avec un petit jeu", but it is hard to envisage how tone of voice or gesture could have been used to make this verb more comprehensible to the learners.

In most lessons, where simplification strategies were observed to occur, a combination of different strategies was used. In the second co-operatively taught lesson of teacher B2, for example, the verb "ennuyer" (to bore) was introduced using repetition, tone of voice, humour, and contextualisation. This verb is additional to the syllabus of *Tour de France* Book 1, so the learners would not be expected to have encountered it before unless it had been used by their teacher(s) at other times. In a short exchange this verb was repeated in two forms (see Appendix E). Firstly, teacher B2 asked her co-operative teacher "tu es ennuyeux?"[7] Then she said "je t'ennuie? (do I bore you?). In response B1 said, correcting her error, "ennuyé, non". Although it seems unlikely that this degree of repetition alone would have been sufficient to make the verb comprehensible to the learners, the context in which it was spoken might have made it so for a few pupils at least. Teacher B2 had

[7]This question actually means: "are you boring? This is a teacher error. Since her intended meaning was "are you bored?", she should have said "tu es ennuyé?" or, better still, "tu t'ennuies?"

started the lesson giving instructions for a game. Then a number of pupils entered the class late and she broke off what she was doing to check the class roll. In the meantime B1 stood quietly to one side. When B2 abruptly returned to the game and asked B1 to choose a pupil to start them off, he was taken by surprise. This was evidenced by his behaviour, tone of voice, and his words "pardon, je n'ai pas fait attention." B1 spoke as if he were a child who was being chastised by his teacher. He admitted that he had been sleeping, accompanying his words with a snoring sound. B2 replied in the tone that she would use when disciplining a pupil saying that she would give him an exercise. The pupils were familiar with the verb "faire attention" which occurred in all four of B2's lessons and with the noun "exercice" which is of course similar in sound to its English equivalent. When subsequently asked whether or not he was bored, B2 answered in a pacifying tone of voice which might have helped the learners to understand the meaning of his words. This is of course by no means certain; the pupils might equally have thought she was asking whether or not he was tired. Nevertheless, the teachers were evidently exploiting the situation to introduce new vocabulary in a context in which the learners might be expected to understand.

Repetition combined with humour and tone of voice also occurred during the first co-operatively taught lesson of B2 and B1. When the former was obliged to leave the classroom for a period of about fifteen minutes, B1 continued with the lesson alone. This involved putting flashcards of furniture in different rooms. At one point, when placing a "table" in the "cellar", he noticed a spider on the floor. He immediately crouched down, pointing and gazing intently at the floor, and saying very loudly in a surprised and excited tone of voice, "oh regardez, il y a une arraignée. Oh une petite arraignée". The pupils rose up out of their seats straining to see what he was looking at. The word "spider" was heard said by at least one child, but the teacher continued in French. He repeated the word several times again in an excited tone, and then pretended to step on the spider. The reaction was instantaneous. The pupils shouted "don't

kill it". There is little doubt that the learners understood the meaning of the word "arraignée" and would probably recognise it again in another context.

B1 also used humour in his own class when teaching co-operatively with B3. The lesson objective was to teach prepositions of place. First B1 announced to B3 that there was a mouse in the classroom, namely himself. She immediately leapt onto a chair squealing in a terrified voice "oh une souris, je détèste les souris." Then "the mouse" set off at a gallop around the classroom stopping to hide under the table, behind the door and so on. B3 would look around the class and ask "où es-tu?" and the mouse would reply "je suis ici, derrière la porte", to which B3 said "il est là, derrière la porte"[8]. The pupils clearly enjoyed the antics of their teachers, laughing hysterically when B1 attempted to hide behind the blackboard which was fixed to the wall. When B3 was obliged to leave the class for a short while, B1 invited a pupil to play the role of a cat, and to chase the mouse who continued to hide behind and under the furniture. Although the pupil was required to ask "où es-tu?" as had B3, and to repeat the mouse's position after the latter had said where he was, the impression given to the observer was that the attention of the class was on the action and not on the vocabulary. The pupils became more and more excited, shouting encouragement in English to the cat, until the class was in uproar. It seems likely, therefore, that the learners would remember the situation in which a pupil was permitted to chase the teacher; they might not, however, remember the vocabulary the game had been designed to teach. While humour can help to teach vocabulary, it is important to maintain control of the situation and the pupils.

Another example of potential misuse of simplification strategies was given in the class of teacher P1 when he was co-operating with P2. These teachers used repetition, gesture, and humour in the

[8] Strictly speaking she should have said "elle est là" since mouse is feminine in French, but since it was a male mouse, "il" would seem more appropriate in this context.

dialogue quoted on page 152 which was designed to introduce kitchen appliances, and was part of a longer discussion about the lay-out of P2's house. While, in the quoted dialogue, the two teachers restricted themselves to French, later when P2 was trying with grand gestures and sound effects to explain in French that she had "un évier" (a sink) in her kitchen with "deux robinets" (two taps) and "de l'eau" (water), P1 sabotaged her attempts by breaking into English. He made sarcastic comments about her acting ability, comparing it with her poor drawing skills, and then made wild guesses (again in English) about the meaning of "évier". One suggestion was that it might be a television. Given that the pupils could easily have guessed the meaning of the French word "télévision" if they did not already know it, and have understood from P1's tone of voice that he was making fun of P2, there did not seem any good reason to have broken into English at this point. P1 was missing an opportunity to develop the learners' guessing strategies, an opportunity that he had taken earlier in the discussion.

Another example of the use of English in circumstances where it was clearly unnecessary was observed in the class of C1. The first part of the lesson (which C1 taught alone) involved the presentation of colours and styles of hair. To do this he used the visual examples of coloured flashcards and individual pupils in the classroom. There was, therefore, little likelihood that the pupils would not understand the difference between "les cheveux noirs" (dark hair) and "les cheveux blonds" (blond hair), or "les cheveux raides" (straight hair) and "les cheveux bouclés" (wavy hair). Nevertheless, the teacher asked the class at regular intervals "qu'est-ce que ça veut dire en anglais?".

In the observation study, therefore, it was evident that teachers who habitually tried to use French for management purposes were capable of using simplification strategies to make the input comprehensible, although they did not always do so. The reasons for this are not clear. Perhaps it is a further indication that some

teachers do not really understand the reasons why the target language should be used in the classroom, or perhaps it reflects a belief that even when meaning has been made crystal clear through gesture, tone of voice, repetition and so on, it is still necessary to check the learners' comprehension through English. The use of English certainly makes the input "comprehensible", but it also encourages the learners to wait for the translation, and to ignore the explanation, and perhaps even the original expression, in French. Vocabulary and structures presented in this way may not become intake. In service training is needed to alert teachers to this danger.

7.9 Conclusion

In this chapter it has been shown that co-operative teaching can have a positive effect on foreign language classroom discourse. Firstly, it can increase the quantity of target language used for management purposes. Secondly, it can help to improve the quality of the target language input, not only by increasing the variety of verbs to which they are exposed (and by analogy other forms of vocabulary such as nouns and adjectives), but also by providing opportunities for the teachers to present the language as a real means of communication, using simplification strategies which help make the input comprehensible to the learners and therefore available as intake. The nature of the co-operative team may, however, be crucial in determining the degree to which co-operative teaching is effective in this respect. This problem and other prerequisites for effective co-operative teaching are discussed in chapter 9 but, first, chapter 8 focuses on impediments to target language use.

Chapter 8
Problems and Solutions

8.0 Introduction

In chapter 5, the characteristics of survey respondents who were positive towards the use of the target language were identified. Many of these characteristics were judged to be indicative of enthusiasm for the foreign language. Little attempt, however, has been made in this thesis to establish why negative attitude teachers find it difficult to teach in French, and why they lack the necessary enthusiasm for their subject. The two are undoubtedly connected. If the reasons for teachers' negative attitude towards the target language can be found, the cure for their lack of enthusiasm may become apparent.

There are two sources of information about why teachers have difficulty in maintaining the use of the target language. Firstly there are the reasons given by teachers in the Co-operative Teaching Survey, and secondly there are teacher behaviours which were seen in the observation study to hinder the use of the target language. This chapter focuses on each in turn, and considers to what extent co-operative teaching might help deal with the problems identified.

8.1 CT Survey Reasons for not Using the TL

In chapter 5, table 5.6 (which is repeated below for ease of reference), it was shown that, of the nine impediments to target language use given in the Co-operative Teaching Survey, only three were related to teachers' attitude towards the use of the target language as measured by the Target Language Index. Teachers with a positive attitude were shown to find class size a problem, while teachers with a negative attitude judged the yeargroup being

Table 5.6 (Reproduced from chapter 5) Reasons for Not Using the Target Language (N=201)

(Ranked According to the Percentage of Teachers Judging Each Reason to be Very important)

Question: Please indicate how important you think the following situations are in terms of their contribution to your success in using French all the time in the classroom.

		PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS RATING SITUATION AS			
		IMPORTANT		UNIMPORTANT	
	SITUATION	VERY	FAIRLY	RELATIVELY	EXTREMELY
1	the behaviour of the pupils	76%	19%	2%	1%
2	the size of the class 64%	17%	12%	4%	
3	your confidence in speaking French	50%	33%	7%	6%
4	the reaction of the pupils when you speak French all the time	40%	40%	12%	5%
5	the presence of many low ability pupils in the class	39%	36%	17%	5%
6	whether the pupils you are teaching were taught in French last year	36%	32%	19%	10%
7	how tired you are on a given day	27%	43%	19%	7%
8	which year group you are teaching	26%	33%	23%	13%
9	how the class is grouped (e.g whole class/groups)	19%	24%	34%	19

taught (that is whether it was S1, S2 and so on) and the presence of low ability pupils in the classroom to be an impediment to teaching through the medium of the target language. In the discussion of these issues, it was suggested that the problems underlying class size, yeargroup and low ability pupils were pupil indiscipline and teachers' negative attitude towards the use of communicative language teaching methodology. While there can be no conclusive proof that this is so, it is evident that problems of indiscipline and

negative departmental ethos were of concern to teachers in the survey. Table 5.6 (above) shows that 95% of respondents identified bad pupil behaviour as a major impediment to the use of the target language, while negative departmental attitude was mentioned in an open question by a number of teachers.

Co-operative teaching can help cope with both pupil indiscipline and a negative departmental ethos.

8.1.1 Co-operative Teaching as an Aid to Classroom Control

Finding a solution for indiscipline *per se* may be impossible since the problem, concerns the intrinsic nature of children in school. Some children may misbehave because their teachers are incompetent, others do so irrespective of teachers' efforts to motivate them with interesting work. It is unfortunately the case that many pupils simply do not want to be in school, and will seize every opportunity to cause disruption as a means to a little light relief from hated schoolwork. This problem may be worse in Modern Language departments where it is not always possible to convince learners of the value of learning the language of a country which, in their opinion, they are unlikely to visit and whose inhabitants they are unlikely to encounter.

If it is impossible to convince such pupils of the importance of learning a foreign language, the problem must be approached from a different angle. Communicative language teaching methodology with its emphasis on individualised learning and group and paired activities might be a solution to the problems arising out of boredom and frustration with inappropriate classwork. To ensure that communicative methodology is effectively implemented it is essential to convince teachers not only that it is important but also that it is viable in a range of teaching environments.

A co-operative teacher can alleviate the difficulties of implementing paired and group work by helping both to produce materials and to monitor the work of the pupils. If the pupils are

ensured of attention on demand, their motivation to complete the tasks set them is liable to be greatly increased. The value of co-operative teaching for setting up group and paired work was discussed in chapter 1, and was identified by almost all teachers in the Co-operative Teaching Survey as a very important advantage of co-operative teaching (table 8.1 below).

Table 8.1 Advantages of Co-operative Teaching (N=184)

Question: If you were asked to make a case for co-operative teaching, how important would you rate each of the following suggested advantages?

	% OF TEACHERS JUDGING ADVANTAGE TO BE IMPORTANT
CO-OPERATIVE TEACHING:	
facilitates group and paired work	99%
allows greater attention to be paid to pupils with learning difficulties	98%
facilitates role play demonstration	97%
allows the teacher(s) to model linguistic interaction	95%
increases pupils motivation	92%
facilitates individualised learning	89%
facilitates remediation (with a non-specialist teacher)	87%
helps with absentees who have missed classwork	86%
facilitates in-class testing	86%
is useful for meaningful presentation of new work	83%
facilitates remediation (with a specialist teacher)	70%
makes it easier to maintain the use of the target language as the medium of instruction	64%
helps with the correction of written work	62%
helps with discipline problems	54%

The notion that co-operative teaching may help teachers deal with problems of indiscipline is quite reasonable. In co-operatively taught classes, it is possible to ensure that the majority of pupils are actively occupied, so indiscipline should (theoretically at least) decrease, and teachers should find it easier to maintain the use of the target language. However, only 54% of respondents agree (table 8.1 above) that "helping with discipline problems" is an important advantage of co-operative teaching.

There are many possible explanations for this. Firstly, the effectiveness of co-operative teaching in maintaining class discipline may depend on the extent to which teachers can be seen as having equal rights to impose sanctions on unruly pupils. If the co-operative teacher must refer instances of indiscipline to the class teacher, the sanction is delayed and may prove ineffective. Furthermore, the status of the co-operating teacher may be devalued in the eyes of the pupils, and this could result in them behaving worse than usual when that teacher is working with them. This is particularly likely to be a problem where the co-operative teacher is a foreign language assistant who already has little status in the eyes of the pupils. Although no recording was made of the FLA's utterances in the observed lessons (table 8.2) she was not seen to discipline any pupils. This may have been because she was intimidated from behaving normally by the presence of the observer. When she was asked in interview whether or not she would normally tell pupils to behave, she said that she would take action if the teacher had discipline problems, and if she were beside the pupil who was misbehaving, because "I don't like when pupils don't respect the teacher".

Table 8.2 shows that, with the possible exception of teachers P1 and P2, the presence of the co-operative teacher appeared to have little effect on the class control of any teacher in the study . It should be pointed out that, with the exception of teacher C2, most teachers observed had few discipline problems. The extraordinarily high occurrences of segments pertaining to discipline in the first co-operatively taught lesson of teacher B1 can be explained by the fact that nine of the eleven instances of discipline occurred during the rehearsal and performance of the role play where the pupils were not under direct teacher control.

A second reason why co-operative teaching may not improve teachers' classroom control concerns the degree to which the co-

operative teacher is integrated into the lesson. The co-operative teacher who works at keeping the class constantly occupied may be of more value with respect to maintaining good classroom discipline than the one who stands at the side of the room waiting for the class teacher to involve him in the lesson. With the exception of teacher C2, most teachers observed made considerable effort to involve the co-operative teacher in the lesson. In teacher C2's class, however, the FLA's only contribution (apart from greetings at the beginning and end of the lesson) was 15 linguistic prompts lasting a few seconds each. The need for a teaching methodology that actively involves the co-operative teacher is essential if co-operative teaching is to have any educational value.

Table 8.2 Number of Coded Segments Devoted to Problems of Indiscipline

NO CT = no co-operative teaching
CT = lesson co-operatively taught

TEACHER	NO CT	NO CT	CT	CT
C1	4	3	4	4
C2	18	13	20	not observed
B1	3	5	11	3
CT to B1	-	-	1	0
B2	0	2	0	0
CT to B2	-	-	1	0
B3	1	not observed	3	not observed
CT to B3	-	-	1	not observed
B4	0	not observed	0	not observed
CT to B4	-	-	0	-
P1	10	6	3	1
CT to P1	-	-	0	0
P2	4	3	1	2
CT to P2	-	-	0	0

Finally, as one respondent pointed out, co-operative teaching does not help if **both** teachers have discipline problems (T142). This situation did not occur in the observation study.

8.1.2 CT as a Means of Improving Teachers' Attitudes

In chapter 5, enthusiasm for the target language was shown to be a likely determinant of positive attitude towards its use for classroom management purposes. Enthusiasm of one's departmental colleagues is also of importance. Although many teachers agree that teaching through the medium of the target language is desirable, it may be difficult to maintain when departmental colleagues do not make any attempt to do so in their own classes, and, in addition, insist on speaking English when they enter the class of a colleague who is teaching in French. As one teacher says:

> It is much easier to maintain the use of the foreign language ... if everyone in the department has a common policy of speaking French. It is more difficult to introduce the use of the foreign language, and to maintain it if you are working in a department along with other teachers who seldom use the language in real life situations.
>
> Teacher 533

This problem is doubly significant if the head of department does not believe in the importance of Communicative Language Teaching methodology. A good example of this potential problem is Mr M, a principal teacher in a large school with a very good record in terms of Scottish Certificate of Education (SCE) examination passes. Although he is extremely dissatisfied with his own success in teaching through the medium of the target language, he nevertheless thinks that its use is relatively unimportant. Indeed, he feels that all ten of the activities listed in table 4.1 are best dealt with in English.[1] He claims to believe that it is very important to teach phrases for classroom communication to his pupils, but never does so.

It would be relatively surprising if the departmental colleagues of this teacher were not negatively affected by his evident lack of

[1] The management tasks were: organising the classroom, giving instructions, chattting, disciplining, discussing meanings, correcting written work, testing, discussing background, objectives, and grammar.

enthusiasm for teaching through the medium of the target language.

The notion that negative attitude towards communicative methodology may underly the problems of maintaining the use of the target language with certain year groups and with low ability pupils in the classroom is entirely plausible. Implementing paired and group activities with appropriately graded learning materials for a range of abilities is an important part of communicative language teaching methodology, but (as has been discussed elsewhere in this thesis) they are difficult to organise in large classes. The use of communicative language teaching strategies, and the maintenance of the target language, are only possible if teachers can be convinced of their importance and viability within their own teaching environment.

A possible solution to this problem would be to second teachers, who are not totally convinced of their feasibility, to schools where teachers already use paired and group work as a regular teaching strategy, and where the target language is in use as the medium of instruction. It would, of course, be essential that the receiving schools be as similar as possible to those of the seconded teachers. At the beginning of the secondment, the visiting teachers could be invited to observe successful teachers in action, and once they felt sufficiently at ease with the methodology they might be given the opportunity to try it out as a co-operative teacher. In this way the seconded teacher could be shown in a totally supportive environment not only that it is possible to implement communicative methodology, but how it can be done. The next step would be to encourage the (hopefully, newly enthusiastic) teacher to return to his/her department and invite colleagues to co-operatively teach with them putting into practice the newly learned skills.

8.2 Observed Impediments to Target Language Use

During the observation study, a number of teacher behaviours were

observed which, in the view of the observer seemed to militate against the use of the target language. In the following sections, these behaviours are discussed and, where relevant, co-operative teaching is considered as a possible source of help.

8.2.1 Lack of Management Vocabulary

In chapter 4, the need to create a category of teacher language which described the situation where a teacher began a sentence in French and finished it in English was discussed. In the Co-operative Teaching Analysis System, this was called "juxtaposition". Juxtaposition was observed to occur in the classes of several teachers in the study, but the most striking examples come from the lessons of teacher C2. This teacher used the same juxtaposed expressions almost every day she was observed. When she wanted the class to open their exercise books at the back where they would normally write vocabulary she would say "ouvrez vos cahiers, at the back". When preparing for a written exercise she said "écrivez la date, and your heading is..."

It seems unreasonable to suppose that an otherwise fluent speaker of French was incapable of completing the phrases in French. Even if this were so, the teachers' book of *Tour de France* Part 1 provides a list of 88 common classroom commands in French which can be adapted to suit almost every situation. The list includes, for example, " Tourne à la page..." which teacher C1 routinely employed in the command "tournez à la page où vous écrivez le vocabulaire". If teacher C2 produced juxtaposed statements out of ignorance of the correct expression, she could learn them either by working with the teachers' book and a French dictionary, or, alternatively by teaching co-operatively with someone who did know the appropriate phrases and used them effectively in class - someone like her colleague C1. In fact, C1 said in his survey response that, in his opinion, one of the most important advantages of co-operative teaching is that it

> allows a promoted/experienced member of staff to demonstrate use of French as the medium of

instruction/methodology etc, to junior/ inexperienced members of the department.

If, on the other hand, C2 employed juxtaposition, not because of ignorance, but because because she believed that the learners would not understand her, this is more difficult to deal with.

Wong-Fillmore (1985) says that one of the secrets of successful language teaching is teacher discourse which is "routinized, consistent, and therefore familiar". In her study of learners of English as a second language, Wong- Fillmore found that children who understood very little English were able to follow instructions in the foreign language because the format of the lesson remained the same. Examples of routinization of this sort were observed in the class of teacher B2 who frequently organised games with the same format. At the start of the game she would say: "on va faire un petit jeu, les garçons contre les filles". Very simple instructions were then given. The game was usually one which they had played before, so the learners had no difficulty in understanding what they had to do. At the end of the game she would say "alors, ajoutez les points" (sic) and finally "qui a gagné?"

There is a strong case for ensuring that teachers are aware of current research on language acquisition, and empirical findings which show the relationship between success in language learning and certain types of teaching methodology such as routinization of lesson format and using the foreign language as the medium of instruction. Since teacher C2 already routinely used the juxtaposed commands in her class, it would be a small step for her to replace them with commands entirely in French. But for her to take that step, she would have to be convinced that it was necessary. It is clear that at the time of the study she believed that the use of English was a necessary part of foreign language teaching. During her in-depth interview she said,

I think for some things you have to go back to English. I think

> for discipline it has got to be English, and obviously you have to check that they understand what is going on, so that's got to be in English. If you are introducing grammar... that's got to be in English. Quite a few things have got to be done in English.
>
> Teacher C2

A combination of in-service training on current views on language learning and co-operative teaching with an experienced teacher, such as C1, could provide this teacher with the kind of help she needs to be able to maintain the use of the target language.

8.2.2 Translation

Just as it was necessary to identify juxtaposition as a category in the analysis, so a second type of French/English mix, namely translation, was created to describe the situation in which teachers said something in French and then immediately repeated it in English. While teachers C1 and C2 occasionally used translation to define new words: "bouclé is wavy" (C2); "elle a les cheveux frisés - she has curly hair" (C1), most instances of translation were observed in Baird Academy where the teachers commonly employed it when giving activity instructions. Example of this were: "alors, vous écrivez seulement - you just write" (B1); "alors écoute, just listen" (B2) and "ferme ton cahier - shut your jotter" (B3)

Wong-Fillmore (1985: 35) points out that translation, instead of making the target language input more comprehensible to the learner, tends to have the effect of encouraging him to ignore the foreign language altogether. She says

> When learners can count on getting the information that is being communicated to them in language they already know, they do not find it necessary to pay attention when the language they do not understand is being used. Observations in classrooms where this method has been used have shown that children tend to tune out when the language they do not know is being spoken....

In theory, co-operative teaching, by presenting examples of good teaching practice, might be used to help teachers to avoid this

pitfall. However, the widespread incidence of translation in the classes of B1, B2 and B3 suggest that it may have been co-operative teaching which encouraged its use. The habit may have originated with one of the three teachers, and was subsequently picked up by the others during co-operatively taught lessons. There is no reason why co-operative teaching should be incapable of providing bad teaching practice.

None of the teachers observed in this study was sufficiently effective in using the target language to provide an appropriate model for other teachers to copy. Co-operative teaching can only be effective as a means of dealing with the problems identified in this chapter if the model is good. Ideally, as discussed above, negative attitude teachers should be seconded to schools where effective target language teaching is in operation. However, an alternative and more immediate way of dealing with the problem might be to provide (for discussion within the teachers' own departments) video-taped lessons with written transcripts showing how the use of translation and other inappropriate language behaviours (such as those identified in this chapter) can hinder target language use.

8.2.3 Teacher Versus Learner-centred Classrooms

One of the characteristics of the communicative classroom is that it should be learner- rather than teacher-centred (Littlewood, 1981; Brumfit, 1984 Widdowson, 1987). In the learner-centred classroom, language activities are designed to provide learners with the maximum number of opportunities to use the target language in meaningful contexts, usually in paired and group activities. The teacher's role in these activities is to monitor the pupils' performance, and offer help only when communication breaks down.

Despite the fact that P2 stated in her survey response that informal chat could easily be performed in French, in the observation study, she frequently interrupted paired activities to chat in English to the pupils about subjects which, as beginning

learners of French, they could not have discussed in the foreign language. On one occasion, P2 talked about what was written on a pupil's exercise book cover (the name of a boyfriend), on another she had a lengthy discussion with a pupil about where his parents were going on holiday. It was evident that this teacher was either ignorant of, or simply did not care about, the fact that she was sabotaging the pupils attempts to use the target language.

A combination of co-operative teaching with experienced and effective teachers who could provide a good example of the "teacher as facilitator", and in-service training on communicative methodology, might help deal with the problems of excessive teacher intervention identified in the classes of P2.

8.2.4 Excessive Teacher Talk

Mitchell (1986) notes that excessive teacher talk in the language classroom can inhibit the use of the target language as the medium of instruction. Examples of this were observed in the class of teacher B3 who, when alone with her class, gave very long-winded and complex activity instructions, mostly in English. This proved necessary because she had asked the learners to do an exercise which consisted of several different tasks, each part of which required separate instructions. A number of pupils subsequently became confused and asked for further explanation. During one explanation, B3 talked for 110 seconds, of which 105 were in English.

The problems of excessive teacher talk could be avoided if the teacher were to routinize language practice activities so that they always had the same format. If the learners were asked to do a single task, in a familiar format, they would soon learn to follow the instructions without lengthy explanations in English. For example, a written exercise could be demonstrated orally with a co-operative teacher or a good pupil if the former was unavailable. One or two examples of the spoken exercise could then be written on the blackboard while the teacher gave simple spoken instructions.

Then the pupils would be asked to continue alone.

8.2.5 Discussing Appropriate Language

The Co-operative Teaching Analysis System includes a category of teacher discourse entitled "discussing appropriate language" which involved the explicit discussion of appropriate syntactic structures and/or items of vocabulary needed to complete an exercise. The teacher would usually precede such discussion with the question "how do you say X in French?" In the observation study all instances of this category were performed in English, although teacher C2 mitigated the effect of the abrupt change to English by establishing boundaries between French and English discourse. At the beginning of the discussion on appropriate language he said, “now we are in Scotland so we are talking English". At the end he said "maintenant nous sommes en France", and gave the subsequent instructions in French.

Despite its frequent occurrence in the observed lessons, it is not clear to what extent discussion of language to be used in an exercise is really necessary. If the language has already been practised (and, hopefully, acquired by the learners), then they should be able to perform the task if shown what to do. Teachers B1 and B3 (teaching co-operatively together) were able to avoid linguistic discussion entirely when preparing for a role play. First, they demonstrated the role play together. Then they had the pupils practise in groups while they, the teachers, monitored. Finally they had groups demonstrate their role play to the class.

Co-operative teaching can be used to demonstrate all language practice activities, and obviates the need for the help of a "good pupil" who may require instructions in English before the demonstration can take place.

8.2.6 Monotonous Teaching Methodology

Monotonous teaching methodology can have a detrimental effect on a teacher's use of the target language. Teacher C2 did the same

activity in one of her classes for an hour. The class that she was observed teaching met last period in the afternoon, so they were tired and restless. The teacher made no attempt to vary her approach, so the pupils behaved badly, and she was obliged to use English to regain control. A solution to this problem might be to employ C2 as a co-operative teacher in the class of a teacher who is more imaginative in approach (such as teacher C1), and where she could try out new and interesting ideas.

8.2.7 Inertia

It has been suggested in the preceding sections that most of the observed behaviours which hindered the maintenance of the target language might be dealt with through co-operative teaching and/or in-service training which informs teachers about empirical justification for communicative language teaching methodology. Inevitably, not all problems observed in the study can be solved in this way.

One such problem, observed in some classes, was that of "inertia". By this is meant the situation where a teacher breaks from speaking French to say something in English, and does not return to speaking French again even though he is performing the same task as before. This phenomenon was observed particularly in the class of P1.

Although table 7.2 (in chapter 7) shows that P1 used relatively little French when teaching his own class, the impression given to the observer was that he was a successful target language user. The explanation for this anomaly seems to be that although the total amount of French spoken by P1 was relatively small, the segments conducted in French were quite long and in many cases quite complex. However, many long French segments were followed by even longer English segments. For example, in the first lesson in which he taught alone, P1 started classroom organisation in French (102 seconds,100% in French). Next he did a revision exercise, in the middle of which he broke into English to discuss how to avoid

causing offense in the foreign language (see chapter 6 for discussion of this sociolinguistic segment). Sixty-eight percent of the management language which occurred during this exercise was dealt with in English. The following two segments (giving paired activity instructions and monitoring the activity) were dealt with entirely in English. Yet, in all other lessons, paired activity instructions were given almost entirely in French. It appeared as though P1 had forgotten about using the target language as the medium of instruction.

De Sauzé (1959: 18), who maintains that it is possible to eliminate the mother tongue entirely from the language classroom, points out that

> experience has shown that it is almost impossible to limit oneself to a minimum of English; all administrators agree that the tendency is to increase the amount, five minutes today, ten tomorrow, and in a comparatively short time only ten minutes are devoted to the foreign language.

In other words, inertia tends to force the teacher to abandon the use of the target language in favour of the mother tongue.

There is no obvious solution to the problem of inertia, other than to be aware that it happens and to exert considerable self-control to return to speaking French after one has broken into English. The first step is to ensure that teachers are aware of the problem. In-service courses on teaching methodology might address some of the teacher behaviours discussed here. Then teachers could be encouraged to assess the cause of breakdowns in their own attempts to maintain the use of the target language as the medium of instruction.

8.2.8 Use of English in Public Examinations and Teaching Materials

A further problem which cannot easily be solved is that of examination and coursebook questions which are couched in English.

Because the SCE Ordinary Grade Examination reading and listening comprehensions have questions in English, it has in the past been necessary for teachers to conduct certain parts of their lessons in the mother tongue in order to practise these skills. This problem was mentioned by a number of teachers in the Co-operative Teaching Survey. Unfortunately, the problem does not disappear with the Standard Grade. Listening and reading tasks in the new examination also involve answering questions in English, so it is difficult to envisage how the mother tongue could be avoided completely (see Appendix A for details of the S-Grade examination format). However, the fact that the pupils must use English to answer the questions need not necessarily mean that the teacher has to speak English. Instructions for activities and exercise correction can be couched in French. In the observation study, in a listening exercise in which the learners were required to respond in English, teacher B1 gave all instructions in French, and also used a large amount of French while correcting their responses.

An issue which is related to examination questions couched in English, but which was not mentioned by teachers in the survey, is the fact that most French courses used in Scottish secondary schools contain large sections in English. The language course *Tour de France,* which is used in 61% of the schools in the survey and all schools in the observation study, is a case in point. The teacher's book of this course emphasises the importance of using the target language for classroom management, and yet the pupil's book presents background in English, gives exercise instructions in English, and contains pages of vocabulary and phrases with translations in English. *Tour de France* is not unique in this respect. It is not surprising that the teacher who is obliged to use a commercial course finds it difficult to use the target language exclusively. Mitchell (1986) points out that, when courses of this sort are used, "seepage" tends to occur; in other words, teachers tend to use English for more purposes than is strictly necessary to deal with the English parts of the book. This is another form of "inertia".

One solution to the problem of English-medium course books might be to abandon their use in favour of teaching materials drawn from a variety of different "authentic" sources, but organising a suitable bank of resources is extremely time-consuming, and few teachers have sufficient non-teaching time to undertake such a task.[2]

The foreign language assistant might prove helpful in this respect. As a native speaker he is more likely than the non-native French teacher to have access to "authentic" foreign language texts, and could be encouraged, for example, to record on audio-tape "real" conversations when visiting his family in France. The Principal Teachers' Questionnaire responses reveal that the use of the foreign language assistant for material preparation was very unusual in the surveyed schools. Only five departments used the FLA in this way.

8.3 Prerequisites for Effective Co-operative Teaching

In the previous sections of this chapter a number of impediments to the use of the target language have been identified. Co-operative teaching has been proposed as one way of dealing with many of these problems, but it is self-evident that it can only be of help if it is effectively implemented. A number of pre-conditions for effective co-operative teaching are necessary. These are discussed below.

8.3.1 Pre-lesson Planning

Table 8.3 below shows that, of all the prerequisites which were presented to survey respondents in a closed question as being of potential importance in determining the effectiveness of co-

[2] In this context, the term "authentic" refers to material which has been produced/written by native-speakers for native-speakers. Examples of authentic materials are radio broadcasts, TV programmes, newspaper and magazine articles, restaurant menus, travel guides, and railway timetables. Authentic material is, therefore, contrasted with course book material which is written (often by non-native speakers of the target language) specifically for language learners.

operative teaching, pre-lesson planning was judged to be most critical. This was also mentioned by a number of teachers in the open question which followed.

This finding is intuitively reasonable. The co-operative teacher who enters the class "cold" without any knowledge of the aims and objectives of the lesson, or of what part he has to play, cannot be expected to contribute much to the learning process. What is important is that the co-operative teacher should be utilised in some respect. A number of teachers in the survey complained of being allowed to stand at the side of the class with nothing to do. This also happened in some of the classes in the observation study.

Table 8.3 Prerequisites for Effective Co-operative Teaching

Question: How important are the following things in determining the effectiveness of co-operative teaching?

Prerequisite	Percentage of Teachers judging it important
If there is insufficient planning time	91%
If the co-operative teacher is not a language specialist	86%
If one or both teachers is/are inhibited in using French as the medium of instruction	84%
If there is a clash of teaching methodology between the teachers	83%
If there is a personality clash between the teachers	80%
If there is insufficient time to evaluate the success of the lesson	80%
If the teachers have insufficient training in co-operative teaching techniques	77%
If the class has not reached an appropriate point in the learning sequence when the co-operative teaching period comes round	71%

As has already been discussed, the foreign language assistant contributed very little to the class activities in teacher C2's class. This may have been because C2 did not know how to use the FLA effectively, but it may also have been because of lack of pre-lesson

planning. In fact, the FLA said in interview that the most warning she ever had of what was to occur in class was two minutes before the lesson began. This is clearly undesirable as it vitiates the potential advantages of having a second fluent speaker in the classroom.

Ideally, class activities should be carefully structured so that the co-operative teacher knows exactly what he is required to do at all times. If the structure is adhered to on every occasion, then the amount of pre-planning time that is necessary can be greatly reduced. One principal teacher (T681) organises his co-operatively taught S1/S2 classes in the following way:

- the class is divided into 4 or 5 groups
- the class period is divided into two halves
- each group tackles one activity (listening, speaking, reading or writing) in each half of the period, thus ensuring that each group tackles two activities per week.
- one teacher takes a speaking group while the other runs around the classroom dealing with problems.

Such a system has the advantage that each teacher always knows what is expected of him during the co-operative teaching period, but it is not sufficiently flexible to allow exploitation of the numerous possible uses of a co-operative teacher. Ideally, the co-operative teacher should be able to slot easily and effectively into the normal work of the class. To achieve this planning time is essential.

Pre-lesson planning is also important from a practical point of view. As one teacher pointed out, time has to be found before the lesson to set up materials. If group work is to take place, a room with movable seats is essential. If a listening exercise is to be one of the class activities, it may be necessary to change classrooms to one fitted with listening equipment.

8.3.2 Good Relationship Between Co-operating Teachers.

When teachers were asked to state whether or not they had ever experienced problems in their relationships with co-operative teachers, clashes of teaching methodology were shown to cause more difficulties for teachers than any other aspect of personal relationships in the co-operative teaching situation (table 8.4). Almost a quarter of teachers were still finding this a problem at the time of the survey. There is no simple solution to the problem other than ensuring that only teachers with similar viewpoints on teaching methodology teach co-operatively together, but in small departments this may not be achievable.

Table 8.4 Problems Experienced by Teachers When Co-operatively Teaching.

Question: In undertaking co-operative teaching have you ever been at all worried about any of the following?

	Yes, at first	Yes, even now	No
Fear of personality clash with the other teacher	28%	12%	48%
Fear of methodology clash with the other teacher	31%	24%	32%
fear of being observed teaching	25%	11%	54%
Fear of making mistakes in speaking French	19%	22%	49%

It was clear from teacher B4's behaviour in the class of teacher B3 that the former disapproved of B3's teaching methods. At one point, when he was invited to participate in the class activity, he began by asking the pupils to tell him in English the meaning of the new words that they had been practising in French with B3. In this way he sabotaged B3's attempt to teach them the words in French. Then when B3 tried to regain control of the class, B4 ignored her and continued to quiz the pupils in their mother tongue. A similar battle for control occurred at the end of the lesson. When B3 was attempting to get the class to pack up their books, she had to shout to make herself understood because B4 ignored her and continued to ask the pupils questions. It was not clear what educational value this combination of teachers had for the learners, particularly

since the pupils might well have sensed the animosity between the teachers. When the pupils of teacher B3 were interviewed, however, no mention of this was made.

However, teacher B4's pupils who had B3 as their co-operative teacher, and who were relatively unused to hearing the target language with their own teacher, did not like the foreign language being imposed on them when B3 was present.

R = Researcher's question; P= Pupil response

R Does your teacher talk a lot of French to you?
P Some of them more than others, sometimes B3 says a lot of French you don't understand. Just when you don't understand the question, she says it again, but she says a lot of other stuff as well.
R Do you find that difficult?
P Well, I understand she's just saying the question again to make it clearer, but I don't like it when she says everything in French.
R And B4 doesn't do that?
P No, B4 just speaks words we already know. If we don't know it he speaks to us in English.

Children are creatures of habit and these children clearly did not like their normal routine being upset. Given the importance of creating a pleasant and anxiety-free learning environment, the advisability of implementing co-operative teaching with teachers who have major methodological or personality clashes must be questioned. On the other hand, since these children might have a different teacher with a different teaching methodology in their second year of language learning, working with B3 in first year may make it easier for them to adjust later.

8.3.3 Fluency Training

Table 8.4 shows that, at the time of the survey, 22% of teachers were worried about making errors in French when co-operatively teaching. Since 84% of teachers (table 8.4, above) believe that the success of co-operative teaching may be negatively affected if one or both teachers is/are inhibited about speaking in the target language, the finding of this question suggests that co-operative

teaching may only have a positive effect on the amount of French spoken in the classroom if the teachers concerned are relatively uninhibited target language users.

Although, in chapter 5, teachers self-assessed fluency was not shown to have any significant effect on teachers' attitude towards the use of the target language, it is clear that a large number of teachers believe that it does. Eighty-three percent of teachers said in their survey responses that "confidence in speaking French" was an important determinant of success in using the target language. Some kind of training is necessary to ensure that all teachers are sufficiently fluent and confident to be able to teach through the medium of the target language without fear of making errors.

Table 8.5 Teachers' Experience of In-service Training for Co-operative Teaching

Question: Have you received any of the following kinds of help on how to implement co-operative teaching?

Type of Training	Percentage of Teachers having experienced it
Papers from the Adviser in Modern languages	40%
No help at all	30%
Article in a journal	22%
In-school training from the principal teacher	18%
Discussion within the department	7%
Out-of-school training	5%
Talks from adviser/staff tutor	4%
Meeting at Jordanhill college	(1 teacher)

It is clear, from the survey responses that the kind of fluency training that teachers would like is subsidised trips to France during school time. If education authorities were prepared to organise and pay for teachers to visit and/or teach in French schools, teachers would be exposed to the kind of language that they need for classroom management which is not normally accessible in the context of a family holiday in France. This solution is

particularly attractive in the light of the findings of chapter 5 that the fluency improvement activities which have most effect on teachers attitude towards the target language are those which bring them into contact with native French speakers.

An alternative, and cheaper, way of improving teachers' fluency would be to use foreign language assistants (who are already employed in the schools) to provide "bain de langue" in-service training where teachers would be obliged to speak nothing but French

8.3.4 In-service Training for Co-operative Teaching

In service training on how to implement co-operative teaching is also essential. The Co-operative Teaching Survey responses reveal that very little practical help on how to teach in a co-operative situation had, by the time of the survey, been given to language teachers in Strathclyde. Table 8.5 (above) shows that less than half of the 184 respondents with experience of co-operative teaching had received any kind of training. Since the open question asking for suggestions for appropriate in-service training was answered by more teachers than any other open question in the survey, in-service training is clearly desirable (table 8.6). The most popular forms of requested help concerned seeing co-operative teaching in practice. This finding supports the argument (discussed above) for seconding teachers to departments where good practice is known to take place, so that they might try out co-operative teaching in supportive conditions.

In-service training for foreign language assistants who are to be employed as co-operative teachers is also essential. Although courses for new assistants are common at the start of the academic year, insufficient time is available then for advice on co-operative teaching. Furthermore, such advice as can be given, must be generalisable to all schools. This suggests that in-service training should be made available to foreign language assistants in the departments in which they work, either by the principal teacher or

by the foreign language adviser. There is also a good case to be made for the simultaneous training of the foreign language assistants and the teacher(s) with whom they will teach co-operatively.

Table 8.6 Suggested In-service Training for Co-operative Teaching

Question: What kind of in-service training for co-operative teaching would you like to see being offered to teachers of Modern Languages in your division?

Type of Training	Percentage of Teachers suggesting it
Video of good co-operative teaching	21%
Visits to schools to observe co-operative teaching	16%
Area meetings on co-operative teaching	14%
Information about successful co-operatively taught lessons	8%
Talk given by experienced co-operative teachers	7%
Divisional reports on how co-operative teaching is being implemented in other schools	1%

8.4 Summary

In this chapter, a number of reasons why teachers might find it difficult to maintain the use of the target language have been identified. These include reasons which were singled out by teachers themselves as being problematic, and reasons which the researcher identified during the observation study. Co-operative teaching, and teacher in-service training which focuses on the findings of recent research into language acquisition, have been identified as ways of dealing with some of these problems, but the former can only be effective if a number of important preconditions are met.

Chapter 9
Conclusion and Recommendations

9.0 Introduction

In chapter one, the importance of providing foreign language learners with a language learning environment which approximates that of the second language learner was discussed. It was hypothesised that, for language acquisition to take place, the learner must be exposed to target language input which requires the learner to focus on meaning rather than form. In the foreign language classroom, most "communicative" input of this sort is supplied by the language teacher who, by deviating from the language of the course book, can provide the learner with "quality" input which he would not otherwise encounter.

In this thesis, a serious problem has been addressed, namely, non-native foreign language teachers' difficulties in teaching through the medium of the target language. In accordance with the findings of Wing (1980) and Mitchell (1988), the Co-operative Teaching Study shows that a hierarchy of difficulty among classroom management tasks exists, ranging from tasks which are moderately easy to perform in the target language (organising the classroom, chatting informally with pupils and giving activity instructions) to tasks which are extremely difficult to perform in the target language (discussing objectives and grammar).

In an attempt to find a solution to teachers' difficulties in maintaining the use of the target language for management purposes, this thesis set out to answer two questions:

1. To what extent (if any) does teaching with a second fluent target language speaker (a co-operative teacher) increase the quantity of "communicative" target language used by the teacher(s)?

2. To what extent (if any) does teaching with a second fluent target

language speaker (a co-operative teacher) improve the quality of the teachers' "communicative" target language?

In addition, a number of other questions were addressed. To what extent did the classroom behaviour of the observed teachers' correspond to their stated attitudes towards the use of the target language? What were the characteristics of respondents to the survey who were positive towards the use of the target language, and which (if any) of these characteristics can teachers control? Why do teachers find it difficult to maintain the use of the target language and to what extent can co-operative teaching help overcome the problems identified? What prerequisites are there for effective co-operative teaching to take place? In this final chapter, the extent to which the Co-operative Teaching Study has been successful in answering these questions is assessed. The questions are discussed largely in the order in which they were presented in the thesis.

9.1 Findings

9.1.1 Opinion and Behaviour Compared

In order to find out as much as possible about what was happening in Strathclyde secondary schools, two methods of data collection were employed. Firstly, two surveys were mailed to 270 teachers in 67 schools, and secondly, a small-scale observation study of eight teachers in three Glasgow schools was set up . Mail-administered questionnaires had been chosen in preference to personal interviews because they were the most efficient way to gather information about a large number of people, but the survey data is attitudinal rather than behavioural.

In chapter 6, teachers' opinions and behaviour were compared. Despite the drawbacks of the methodology chosen to make this comparison (discussed at length in chapter 6) a similarity between teachers' behaviour and their stated attitude was found to exist. A hierarchy of three categories of task, which was identical to that

identified in the survey data, was found in the observation study. At one end of the scale (category-1 activities), classroom organisation was conducted largely in French, while, at the other end, teaching grammar and discussing language objectives (category-3 activities) were done in English. This hierarchy corresponds to that which was found in teachers' responses to the questions about the difficulty of performing different tasks in French. Since teachers are liable to perform in French those activities that they find easiest to do in the foreign language, and perform in English the things they find most difficult to do in the foreign language, the conclusion drawn from this was that the hierarchy identified in the survey data was indeed one of difficulty, not just in the minds of teachers, but in actual classroom practice.

Although no firm conclusions can be drawn about the extent to which the attitudes of all survey respondents' towards the use of the target language for classroom management purposes would be reflected in their classroom behaviour, the findings with respect to the eight teachers in the observation study are encouraging.

In a future study set up to elaborate the findings here, a more appropriate methodology might be to combine mail-administered surveys with telephone and personal interviews of a large random sample of teachers. Then a larger-scale observation study, again using a random sample of teachers, could be conducted to draw a comparison between opinion and behaviour.

9.1.2. Characteristics of Positive Attitude Teachers

To identify the characteristics of teachers with a positive attitude towards the use of the target language, a Target Language Index was created. This measured, on a continuous scale, teachers' attitudes towards the use of French in the classroom. Using the Target Language Index as dependent variable, and 31 independent variables, a multiple regression analysis was performed to identify the characteristics of survey respondents with a positive attitude towards the use of the target language for classroom management

purposes. This analysis revealed that teachers who were positive towards the use of the target language had certain characteristics, only some of which they could possibly control.

Teachers clearly cannot change their sex, and can do nothing about whether they studied French as a single subject at university or not, but they do have control over other variables such as fluency. Teachers with a positive attitude towards the use of the target language for classroom management purposes were shown to be those who had spent at least nine months as residents in a French speaking country before beginning to teach, and had, in the five years prior to the survey, made at least one visit to France. Positive attitude teachers were also those who took part in fluency maintenance activities which involved them in considerable effort, for example, seeing French films at a cinema, or attending activities organised by native speakers of French in their home town. It was suggested that these characteristics were reflections of enthusiasm for the foreign language, although the possibility that causality ran in the opposite direction was also considered. Enthusiasm may cause teachers to seek out opportunities to meet and talk with native speakers of the foreign language. It is interesting to note that in Wing's (1980) analysis of the characteristics of 48 teachers, only postgraduate travel and residence abroad was shown to be significantly correlated with teachers' use of the target language. She says "100% of the high target language users had some postgraduate travel or residential experience" (Wing, 1980: 171).

If teachers with a positive attitude are those who are most enthusiastic about the foreign language they are teaching, by analogy teachers who are negative towards using the target language probably lack enthusiasm. The question remains how to help teachers regain the enthusiasm which they presumably possessed at the outset of their teaching career.

Two solutions have been offered in this thesis: (1) in-service

training which explains to teachers not only what communicative language teaching methodology involves, but also why it is important, and (2) co-operative teaching, with effective target language users, which can show how communicative methodology works in practice, and also provide teachers with opportunities to try out communicative teaching strategies in a completely supportive environment.

9.1.3 Quantity of Target Language Input

In chapter 7 the effect of co-operative teaching on the quantity of target language for classroom management purposes (as used by eight teachers) was examined. The conclusion drawn from the analysis was that co-operative teaching had a positive effect on teachers' use of the target language. Most teachers used more French for management purposes when teaching with a co-operative teacher. The nature of the co-operative teacher was also shown to be important. Principal teachers had a more positive effect than unpromoted teachers on the language of the classroom. Since, being in a promoted post had been shown by means of causal modelling techniques to be indicative of positive attitude towards the target language, this finding was not surprising.

The small number of teachers (eight), and the absence of a random sample, preclude the possibility of generalising the findings on quantity of target language to a larger population. To do this, a large-scale observation study would have to be set up with a random sample of teachers in a variety of teaching contexts, and using a variety of language courses.

9.1.4 Quality of Target Language

In order to compare the quality of teacher language in the two teaching contexts (with and without a co-operative teacher), the transcripts of the four lessons of teacher B2 were analysed. A relatively simple methodology was adopted to allow a comparison of the Co-operative Teaching Survey findings and those of Mitchell and

Johnstone (1986). In the co-operatively taught lessons, a larger variation of verbs were found to exist than in the lessons in which the teacher was alone with her class, but little variation in structural complexity was discerned between the two teaching contexts. When these findings were compared with Mitchell and Johnstone's earlier study, a similarity between the language use of the two teachers was evident.

The small-scale analysis of the lessons of one teacher conducted in the Co-operative Teaching Study can only be viewed as tentative. In another study, a larger corpus of lessons of a substantially greater number of teachers should be analysed. Moreover, it would be necessary to study additional aspects of language quality, such as the variety of lexis, and the length and complexity of sentences.

9.1.5 Impediments to TL Use: Co-operative Teaching as a Solution

The analysis of the characteristics of positive attitude teachers revealed that only class size was viewed as an impediment by teachers with a positive attitude towards the use of the target language, while viewing the yeargroup being taught and the presence of low ability pupils in the classroom as problematic was indicative of a negative attitude towards its use. In chapter 5, it was suggested that the real problems underlying these three impediments were pupil indiscipline, and teachers' negative attitude towards Communicative Language Teaching methodology.

In addition to class size, yeargroup, low ability pupils, and the use of English in examinations and language courses (which had been identified in the survey as negatively affecting target language use), a number of other impediments were identified by the researcher in the observation study. These were: insufficient knowledge of everyday classroom vocabulary, giving long-winded and unnecessarily complex instructions, talking too much, intervening too much in paired and group activities, using English to rehearse activities, inertia, and monotonous teaching methodology (which led to problems of indiscipline).

In-service training and co-operative teaching have been proposed as ways of dealing with many impediments to the use of the target language. Co-operative teaching can supply organisational and moral support for teachers in organising a communicative classroom. It can also provide a model of good teaching practice. In-service training can help by educating teachers about current thinking on how learners acquire a foreign language, so as to make them understand why teaching through the medium of the target language is important, and what strategies might help or hinder this goal.

9.1.6 Prerequisites for Co-operative Teaching

Co-operative teaching has been proposed in this thesis as a solution to a number of problems. As claimed in chapter 1, it has advantages not only as an organisational tool, but also as a practical means of increasing the quantity and improving the quality of communicative target language. It is evident, however, that for co-operative teaching to work effectively there are a number of prerequisites. Firstly, teachers involved in co-operative teaching must co-operate: they must want to take part in the lessons of their colleagues. Teachers who have differing ideas about how languages should be taught, and those with widely divergent personality types, should not be expected to work together.

Secondly, teachers should be sufficiently fluent in the target language so that they do not feel inhibited about using it in front of a colleague. Regular visits to France and "bains de langues" with foreign language assistants can help to achieve this.

Finally, co-operative teaching must be planned before it is implemented. Each teacher should know his status in the classroom. To achieve this, a number of questions must be answered: is the class teacher in control; does he decide what is to be done in the lesson, or is it a team decision? How should problems of indiscipline be dealt with? Can the co-operative teacher deal with a

badly behaved child without having to refer him to the class teacher for punishment? What can co-operative teaching be used to achieve in the classroom? In order to help teachers address these questions, in-service training on how to implement co-operative teaching methodology should be set up. If co-operative teaching is implemented well, it has a great deal to offer.

9.2 Conclusions

9.2.1 The TL as a Means of Real Communication in the Classroom

In chapter one, it was posited that to supply the learner with sufficient aural input it was necessary to use a combination of input sources. Those suggested were: (1) audio-recordings: both course-based and authentic, and (2) real people: the teacher, other learners, and visitors.

The observation study revealed that when audio recordings of an authentic nature were used in the classroom, the tasks used to exploit them tended to be uncommunicative in nature. Teacher B4 used the transcripts of an authentic recording of French children talking about themselves as a translation exercise. B1, who was seen to be more positive about the use of the target language than B4, also used this recording in an uncommunicative way, requiring the learners to answer questions in English about what they had heard. These two examples suggest that authentic recordings may be being used inappropriately in Baird Academy. No use of authentic recordings was observed in either of the other two schools.

In most classes, although an attempt was made to use the target language to deal with classroom management, English still predominated. Quantities of French management language ranged from 78% in the class of teacher C1 to 5% in the class of B4. Very little evidence was seen of teachers requiring their pupils to use the target language to communicate their needs, but paired activities involving oral practice of French were common in all classes observed. Most tasks set the pupils involved practice of linguistic structures rather than open-ended conversation. If this

were typical of the way these teachers normally used paired activities, this would suggest that the learners had few opportunities to use the language in communicative ways where the focus of attention was on meaning rather than form. It is difficult to judge how typical this might have been, however, because during the period of observation most classes were beginning new units of work, and were therefore learning new structures and vocabulary rather than practising learned material.

Classroom visitors were rare in the observed lessons, but where they did appear, some attempt was made to communicate with them, at least initially, in French. One teacher who entered the class of teacher B2 greeted and said goodbye to the class in French. By contrast, co-operative teachers habitually addressed each other in English at the start of the lesson, thus depriving the learners of examples of real communication.

Although the sheer quantity of French spoken in the observed classes did not amount to very much, the overall impression given to the observer was that teachers were trying to make their classrooms places where French was a real means of communication. It was also interesting that the classrooms in which the learners seemed to enjoy themselves most, and in which the greatest variety of activities occurred, were also those in which the teachers used most French. Evidently enthusiasm for using the target language corresponds to enthusiasm for trying out different teaching strategies, and results in enthusiasm among the pupils. This is important since as Burstall et al (1974: 233) say,

> [in] classes where the teacher had a positive attitude towards teaching French to the class, the pupils' fluency, pronunciation and accuracy in French received significantly higher ratings than they did in classes where the teachers' attitude towards the class was 'non-commital' or 'negative'.

Although there is no way of ascertaining the effect of teacher enthusiasm on pupil performance in the Co-operative Teaching

Study, it was evident from student interviews that pupils in the classes of enthusiastic teachers had a considerably more positive attitude towards learning French than those in classes of teachers who employed a monotonous teaching methodology. Enthusiasm is evidently of major importance.

9.2.2 Co-operative Teaching

The picture of co-operative teaching that has emerged from this study is a positive one. Most teachers responding to the Co-operative Teaching Survey agreed that co-operative teaching was "a powerful weapon in the battle for communicative teaching" (T451). Sixty-six percent of respondents could see no better use for the teacher resources necessary for the implementation of co-operative teaching, and 68% would have liked to have co-operative teaching all the time with their first and second year classes. One teacher had this to say:

> In an ideal world co-operative teaching would have ultimate priority over all else in Modern Languages. The advantages accruing cannot be stressed too much.
>
> T671

The truth of this claim is difficult to assess. What does seem to be true is that co-operative teaching, if effectively implemented, has a number of uses. Firstly, it can increase the amount of target language used by class teachers for management purposes. Secondly, it can improve the quality of the target language input to which the learners are exposed. Thirdly, it can help deal with the organisational problems (including indiscipline) of the communicative classroom. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, it can be used to engender enthusiasm for teaching through the medium of the target language by providing examples of good practice to teachers who are less than positive about its feasibility.

Since the empirical study on the effects of co-operative teaching described in this thesis concerned a very small sample of teachers,

more research is needed to establish to what extent the findings are generalisable to a wider population. Research is also needed to assess the effect of co-operative teaching on the pupils' acquisition of the target language. Language acquisition is, after all, the ultimate objective of all language teaching methodology.

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Appendix A
Scottish Certificate of Education Standard Grade Examination in French: Pattern of Assessment and Grade Related Criteria
(extract from SEB, 1987: 7 &37-39)

1. Pattern of Assessment

Candidates will be assessed in the three assessable elements of Reading, Listening and Speaking. Writing has been excluded from mainstream assessment, to appear as an option at General and Credit Levels.[1]

1.1 Speaking is viewed as an essential element in assessment of Modern Languages, indeed as the most important element. It is accordingly weighted at 50% of the whole. The arrangements for the assessment of Speaking have been arrived at in the light of the following considerations.

(a) It would not be practicable within the permitted cost limits to attempt to test every candidate in Speaking by external examiner.

(b) Ability to speak in the foreign language cannot be fairly assessed by a single, short, formal proficiency test.

These considerations led to the conclusion that there is no viable alternative to internal assessment of this element. Accordingly, assessment comprises:

[1]The SEB (1987:5-6) document provides a lengthy justification for offering writing as an optional paper to General and Credit Level candidates only. This is that "the traditional emphasis on and approach to teaching the writing of language has had the effect of inhibiting the real use of language" and that "the writing skill, by exaggerating the effect of errors, can act as a depressant to real communicative confidence, in any evaluation system however weighted". Furthermore, " ... in real life [writing] is the skill which is least used" and so "to include writing in the foreign language as an obligatory part of the examination would attract to it a disproportionate part of the available teaching time, and thus would hinder the achievement of the central aim".

(i) on-going internal assessment of performance during S4
(ii) a final proficiency test, externally set and internally assessed.

For both, arrangements are proposed to ensure that common national standards are applied.

1.2 Listening and Reading are each weighted 25%.
In each case, there will be three separate papers each containing the items appropriate to one of the three Levels. These papers will be externally set and assessed.

1.3 Writing in the foreign language will be an optional supplement,This option will be offered at General and Credit Levels. The award in Writing will not be aggregated into the overall grade of award, but will be recorded on the Certificate. In this way an overall award is achieved without the Writing element.

Papers will be externally set and assessed

2. Grade related Criteria Definition

Grade Related Criteria (GRC) are positive descriptions of performance against which a candidate's achievement is measured. Direct comparisons are not made between the performance of one candidate and that of another.

3. Application of Grades

GRC are defined at three levels of performance: Foundation, General and Credit.

Awards will be reported on six grades, two grades being distinguished at each Level. The upper of the two grades at a given Level will be awarded to candidates who meet the stated criteria demonstrating a high standard of performance, the lower grade to those who demonstrated a lower, but still satisfactory, standard of performance.

There will be a seventh grade for candidates who complete the course but fail to meet the criteria for any Level.

4. Types of GRC

Summary GRC are broad descriptions of performance. They are published as an aid to the interpretation of the profile of attainment by candidates, parents, employers and other users of the Certificate.

Extended GRC are more detailed descriptions of performance. They are intended to assist teachers in making their assessments for each element, and to be used by examiners in making their assessments when conducting external assessment.

5. Summary GRC

5.1 Reading - Summary GRC

At each Level:

- items reflected the topic areas specified in the assessment syllabus;
- items were based on authentic material; English;
- candidates were permitted to use a dictionary.

Foundation Level (grades 6, 5)
The candidate understood items in simple language ranging from a single phrase to a few connected sentences

General Level (grades 4, 3)
The candidate understood continuous passages in straightforward language.

Credit Level (grades 2, 1)
The candidate understood continuous passages in quite complex language.

5.2 Listening - Summary GRC

At each Level:

- items reflected the topic areas specified in the assessment syllabus;
- items were based on authentic material; contexts were made clear to the candidates;
- material was recorded on tape by native speakers and heard twice;
- questions and tasks were given in English

Foundation Level (grades 6, 5)

The candidate understood items in simple language ranging from a single phrase to a few connected sentences, spoken clearly and slowly by a native speaker.

General Level (grades 4, 3)

The candidate understood short conversations and passages in straightforward language spoken by a native speaker, usually at normal speed.

Credit Level (grades 2, 1)

The candidate understood conversations and extended passages in quite complex language, spoken by a native speaker at normal speed.

5.3 Speaking - Summary GRC

At each Level the conversation arose from the topic area specified in the assessment syllabus.

Foundation Level (grades 6, 5)

The candidate took part in simple fact-to-face conversations

General Level (grades 4, 3)

The candidate took part in simple fact-to-face conversations, going beyond minimum responses, occasionally taking the initiative.

Credit Level (grades 2, 1)

The candidate took part in extended fact-to-face conversations, going beyond minimum requirements and readily taking the initiative.

5.4 Writing - Summary GRC

At both levels candidates were permitted to a use a dictionary

General Level (grades 4, 3)
The candidate communicated with some success in writing simple messages.

Credit Level (grades 2,1)
The candidate communicated information and personal opinions with clarity, showing some facility in the use of the language.

6. Descriptions of Grades

These describe performance within levels. They apply to each element.

Grade 6	The candidate met the criteria for Foundation level, demonstrating a satisfactory overall standard of performance
Grade 5	The candidate met the criteria for Foundation level, demonstrating a high overall standard of performance
Grade 4	The candidate met the criteria for General level, demonstrating a satisfactory overall standard of performance
Grade 3	The candidate met the criteria for General level, demonstrating a high overall standard of performance

Grade 2	The candidate met the criteria for Credit level, demonstrating a satisfactory overall standard of performance
Grade 1	The candidate met the criteria for Credit level, demonstrating a high overall standard of performance.

Appendix B
Surveys and Survey Correspondence

CO-OPERATIVE TEACHING RESEARCH PROJECT
UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH

Department of Applied Linguistics
14 BUCCLEUCH PLACE, EDINBURGH EH8 9LN

5th January 1988

Dear_____,

As a researcher in the Department of Applied Linguistics at the University of Edinburgh, I am currently involved in a research project on co-operative teaching in Modern Language classrooms in Strathclyde Secondary schools. One of the objectives of the project is to identify whether co-operative teaching helps teachers teach communicatively. If it turns out that co-operative teaching does help in this respect, I intend to recommend to the Education authorities that co-operative teaching should be increased in Modern Languages departments.

To acquire the appropriate information about how co-operative teaching is implemented in Strathclyde, I propose to use a mail-administered questionnaire which will be sent to teachers of French in Lanark, Dumbarton and Glasgow divisions.

I would like to send my questionnaire to teachers of French in your department. I have been in contact with Mr. Fergusson who has given me your name and your school address and has suggested that I write to you directly for information about teachers in your department. since it is crucial that the teacher involved in filling out the questionnaire should be convinced on the confidentiality of their responses, I would like to write to them directly. to enable me to do this, I would very much appreciate it if you could send me a list of the names of all those who teach French in your department (it is not necessary that they should currently be involved in co-operative teaching).

In addition to this information, it would also be helpful if you could fill in the enclosed questionnaire about how your department is organised.
I look forward to hearing from you and enclose a SAE for your reply.

yours sincerely,

Mrs. Carole E. M. Franklin

UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH
Department of Applied Linguistics
14 BUCCLEUCH PLACE, EDINBURGH EH8 9LN

26th January 1988

Dear_____,

It appears from our records that you have not yet returned to us the questionnaire which we sent you on the fifth of January 1988. Since we hope, through our questionnaires, to draw conclusions about teachers' attitudes to the the use of the target language and co-operative teaching, it is very important that as many teachers as possible express their views on these topics. However, without your return we are unable to contact the teachers in your school, and consequently neither your nor their views will be reflected in our report to Strathclyde Regional Council on whether co-operative teaching should be increased, maintained as it is, or perhaps discontinued. We would urge you, therefore, to return the aforementioned questionnaire as soon as possible.

If by any chance you have already sent us your questionnaire, we apologise for sending this letter to you. The postal uplift and delivery system at Edinburgh university has recently been rationalised to take account of the findings of a time and motion study, and (as one might expect) is consequently considerably less efficient than before. Your return may very well be stuck somewhere in the system.

Thank you very much for your co-operation at a time when, as we realise, many teachers are busy with preliminary examinations and orals.

Yours sincerely,

Mrs. Carole E. M. Franklin

CO-OPERATIVE TEACHING RESEARCH PROJECT
UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH
Department of Applied Linguistics
14 BUCCLEUCH PLACE, EDINBURGH EH8 9LN

18th February 1988

Dear ____,

The Department of Applied Linguistics with the permission and encouragement of Strathclyde regional Council Education Department, is currently involved in a research project on the topic of Co-operative Teaching in the French language classroom.

The enclosed questionnaire is designed to supply us with information about teachers' feelings towards teaching through the medium of the target language, and towards Co-operative Teaching. We realise that not all teachers will have first hand experience of Co-operative Teaching, and if you are in this position we would ask you simply to omit the section of the questionnaire which deals specifically with this. The relevant pages are clearly marked.

Please be assured of the utmost confidentiality of your responses. The questionnaire will be handled by our researcher only, for data analysis purposes, and their is no possibility that your name could be connected with your responses. The serial number on each questionnaire is there merely to help us identify to whom reminders are to be sent in the event that you inadvertently forget to return the questionnaire to us. Strathclyde Regional Council will have no access to the questionnaires themselves, but will be supplied with our findings in the form of a final report.

Stamped addressed envelopes have been enclosed with the questionnaires to facilitate your replies. It is very important for the validity of our findings that all questionnaires are completed and returned to us. We will be very happy to supply you with additional copies of the questionnaire should you lose the one we send you, or should you merely wish to keep a copy for your file.

if you wish any further information about the research project in general, or the questionnaire in particular, please leave your name and telephone number with our departmental secretary Mrs Sylvia Motherwell (tel: 031 -667-1011 ext. 6381) and she will have our researcher call you back.

Yours faithfully,

Dr Alan Davies
Head of Department

CO-OPERATIVE TEACHING RESEARCH PROJECT
UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH
Department of Applied Linguistics
14 BUCCLEUCH PLACE, EDINBURGH EH8 9LN

18th February 1988

Dear ___,

It appears, according to our records,that you have not yet returned to us the questionnaire which we sent you on the eighteenth of February 1988. Since we hope, through our questionnaires to draw conclusions about teachers' attitudes to the use of the target language and to Co-operative Teaching, it is very important that as many people as possible express their views on these topics. We very badly need **your** opinion so as to be able to make valid recommendations to Strathclyde regional council on whether or not co-operative teaching in Modern Language departments should be increased, maintained as it is or perhaps discontinued. we would therefore urge you to return the questionnaire as soon as possible, so that your views may be reflected in our report.

If by any chance you have already sent us your questionnaire, we apologise for sending this letter to you. The postal uplift and delivery system at Edinburgh university has recently been rationalised to take account of the findings of a time and motion study, and (as one might expect) is consequently considerably less efficient than before. Your return may very well be stuck somewhere in the system.

Thank you very much for your co-operation at a time when, as we realise, many teachers are busy with preparation for the Ordinary and Higher Grade examinations.

Yours sincerely,

Mrs. Carole E. M. Franklin

Co-operative Teaching Project
Principal Teachers Questionnaire: N = 67

Q1.1 In which division is your school?

Lanark	9
Dumbarton	6
Glasgow	52

Q1.1a In which physical setting is your school situated?

in an urban setting (town centre)	28
in a suburban setting	35
in a rural setting	4

Q1.1b Is your school

predominately middle class	8
predominately working class	53
a mixture of both	5

Q1.1c Is your school

Roman Catholic	23
non-denominational	44

Q1.2 Which language course(s) do you use?

Eclair	20
Tour de France	41
Action	24
Tricolore	10
Visa	1
Communications	7
Hexagone	1
School-produced materials	5

Q1.3a Do you have a departmental policy on how you should teach the course materials?

no policy at all	5
written policy	34
tacitly understood policy	27

Q1.3c Format of policy (1) **open question.**

Communicative approach	7
aim is communicative competence	3

target language as medium of instruction	45
target language NOT used as medium of instruction	1
judicious use of English to aid comprehension	11
Tricolore prescribed methodology	1
Tour de France prescribed methodology	7
scheme of work/set objectives	4

Q1.3d Format of policy (2)

group work	45
paired activities	50
individual research and initiative encouraged	2
emphasis on receptive skills	1
emphasis on oral/aural aspects of language	4

Q1.3e Format of policy (3)

regular assessment	6
use of video	3
use of peripheral learning unit	6
co-operative teaching for work with computers	2
co-operative teaching for remediation/extension	4
co-operative teaching for presentation	2

Q1.4 How many full periods of French do each of your year groups have per week?

	average
In S1	3
In S2	3
In S3	4
In S4	4

Q1.4a How many half-periods of French do each of your classes have per week?

	average (table based on 6 respondents)
In S1	1
In S2	1
In S3	0
In S4	0

	average
Q1.4b How many minutes on average does each period last?	58

Q1.5 What is the average size of French classes in your department?

	average
In S1	26
In S2	26
In S3	20
In S4	19

Q1.6 Are the classes in your school mixed ability?

	yes	no	partially
	.:.	.:.	.:.
In S1	66	1	0
In S2	58	9	0
In S3	32	32	2
In S4	30	35	1

Q1.7 At the present moment how many French classes are there in the following year groups?

	average
In S1	5
In S2	5
In S3	2
In S4	2

Q1.8 In which year will your S4 pupils be presented for the Standard Grade Examination in French rather than the Ordinary Grade?.....1990 (average)

Q1.9 Do you currently have a French-speaking Foreign Language Assistant (FLA)?

yes	60
no	7

Q2.1a Is there co-operative teaching currently going on in your department, or not?

yes	54
no	10
occasionally	3

Q2.1a(i)

In S1..... 47
In S2..... 49
In S3..... 24
In S4..... 22

Q2.1b If you answered no, is this because your department has actively chosen not to have co-operative teaching?

yes..... 2
no..... 8

Q2.1c Reasons for not implementing CT

no CT because of restrictions of timetable..... 6
no CT because department against it..... 1
no CT because of reduction in staffing..... 3
no CT because prefer smaller classes..... 2

For questions on co-operative teaching (except where indicated otherwise) N = 55

Q2.1d Is co-operative teaching in your department timetabled or not?

yes..... 49
no..... 5

Q2.1e Are planning meetings for co-operative teaching

timetabled..... 6
voluntary (i.e. in 'free' periods)..... 41
at departmental meetings..... 4
no planning meetings at all..... 4

Q2.1f At the present moment how many classes in each year group regularly (say once a week) get co-operative teaching?

In S1..... 4 (range 1-8)
In S2 ..... 4 (range 1-8)
In S3..... 2 (range 1-4)
In S4..... 2 (range 1-4)

Q2.1g Is it possible for each class always to have the same combination of teachers when they are co-operatively taught?

yes	48
no	7

Q2.2a Are your co-operative teachers ever used to cover teacher absence within the Modern Language department?

yes	46
yes, but only to cover CT class	1
no	8

Q2.2b Are your co-operative teachers ever used to cover teacher absence outwith the Modern Languages department?

yes	16
no	39

Q2.3a Is the senior management in your school generally sympathetic to your department needs?

yes	49
no	11

Q2.3b Problems with senior management

small department so short of 'free' time	8
large number of promoted staff so short of time	2
cutback in modern languages staff	6
reduction of periods of French	1
no access to remedial T (maths/Eng priority)	1
CT reduced/curtailed because of teacher absence	3
management's disapproval because of dept's creation of remedial section instead of co-operative teaching	1

Q2.4a Please indicate what sort of co-operative teacher you employ at the present time in S1 **(N = 47)**

remedial teacher with knowledge of French	7
remedial teacher with no knowledge of French	4
French teacher from own department	34
remedial teacher with qualification in French	1
English teacher with qualification in French	1
other	2

Q2.4b Please indicate what sort of co-operative teacher you employ at the present time in S2 **(N = 49)**

remedial teacher with knowledge of French	6
remedial teacher with no knowledge of French	4
French teacher from own department	32
foreign language assistant	35
remedial teacher with qualification in French	1
English teacher with qualification in French	1
other	2

Q2.4c Please indicate what sort of co-operative teacher you employ at the present time in S3 **(N = 24)***

remedial teacher with knowledge of French	1
remedial teacher with no knowledge of French	0
French teacher from own department	5
foreign language assistant	**26***
remedial teacher with qualification in French	0
English teacher with qualification in French	0
other	1

Q2.4d Please indicate what sort of co-operative teacher you employ at the present time in S4 **(N = 22)***

remedial teacher with knowledge of French	0
remedial teacher with no knowledge of French	0
French teacher from own department	5
foreign language assistant	**28***
remedial teacher with qualification in French	0
English teacher with qualification in French	0
other	1

*** evidently, in the earlier question (2.1a(i)) some teachers did not judge FLA to be a Co-operative Teacher**

Q2.5 How do you employ the following types of co-operative teacher?

	RemT	FrT	FLA
co-operative teaching only.....	8	23	21
material preparation only.....	3	2	1
both teaching and material preparation....	5	18	5
not applicable in my department.....	21	8	5
for extraction of pupils.....	0	1	5

Co-operative Teaching Survey Data (N= 201)

Q001a In which division is your school?

Lanark	33
Dumbarton	28
Glasgow	140

Q001b In which physical setting is your school?

in an urban setting (town centre)	85
in a suburban setting	102
in a rural setting	14

Q001c Is your school

predominately middle class	42
predominately working class	144
a mixture of them both	15

Q001d Is your school Roman Catholic or non-denominational?

Roman Catholic	62
non-denominational	139

Q001e Which language course(s) do you use?

a Eclair	54
b Tour de France	139
c Action	65
d Tricolore	24
e Visa	3
f Communications	30
g school-produced material	13

Q001f Do you have a policy on how you should teach the course materials?

no policy at all	24
written policy	106
tacitly understood policy	71

Q001g Format of policy

a target language as medium of instruction	145
b paired activities	141
c group work	118

Q1.1a How important do you think it is to teach through the medium of the target language?

very important	89
fairly important	92
relatively unimportant	18
extremely unimportant	1

Q1.1b How likely do you think it is that a pupil will learn incorrect French if his/her teacher makes a lot of errors when speaking French?

very likely	68
fairly likely	83
relatively unlikely	47
extremely unlikely	2

Q1.1c How satisfied are you with your own success in teaching through the medium of French?

very satisfied	22
fairly satisfied	120
relatively dissatisfied	51
extremely dissatisfied	8

Q1.1d In which language do you think the following classroom activities can easily be conducted? in French

	:	In French with difficulties :	best done in English :
	.:.	.:.	.:.
a chatting informally with pupils	106	62	31
b organising the classroom	137	56	7
c giving activity instructions	106	77	17
d explaining meanings	16	106	79
e teaching grammar	0	22	178
f teaching 'background'....N=168	8	56	104
g discussing language objectives	3	24	174
h correcting written work	19	68	113
i running tests	26	71	102

j disciplining.....	31	77	92

Q1.1e What other activities would you choose to do in French? **Open question.**

a pupil requests for equipment.....	6
b pupil requests to do things.....	2
c talk with the co-operative teacher.....	2
d talk with any teacher who interrupts the lesson.....	4
e routine "chit-chat" (e.g what the pupils did at weekend).....	4

Q1.1f Which other activities have you done in French with difficulties? **Open question.**

a working with the FLA.....	1
b test situations.....	1
c switching the purpose of the discourse.....	1
d organising role play.....	1
e organising video work.....	1

Q1.1g Which other activities do you prefer to do in English? **Open question.**

a serious reprimand.....	15
b teaching reading/listening skills.....	3

Q1.1h Please indicate how important the following situations are in terms of their contribution to your success in using French all the time in the classroom?

	very important	: fairly important	: relatively unimp	: extremely unimp
a the size of the class you are teaching.....	129	35	24	7
b the behaviour of the pupils.....	153	38	4	3
c how tired you are on a given day.....	55	87	38	15
d your confidence in speaking French.	101	66	14	13
e the reaction of pupils when you speak in French all the time.....	80	81	25	1
f which year group it is you are teaching.....	53	66	46	27

g whether the pupils you are teaching
were taught in French last year..... 73 64 39 21
h how the class is grouped (e.g whole
class/groups)..... 39 48 68 38
i the presence of many low-ability pupils
in the class..... 74 62 28 8

Q1.1i What additional reasons might prevent a teacher from maintaining the use of the Target language? **Open Question**
a lack of time to train pupils to respond..... 9
b problem of having to express oneself in
more than one FL each day 1
c not fluent enough to express real
feelings (e.g be angry)..... 1
d administrative interruptions..... 1

Q1.2a How fluent are you in French?
a native speaker fluency..... 11
b fluent and confident but occasionally
make minor errors..... 104
c a bit rusty, but with a bit of practice
could be fluent again..... 71
d confident with junior classes, but not
at post 'O' grade..... 24
e other..... 3

Q1.2b In the last year, did you do any of the following things?
a talk socially in French to a native
speaker..... 157
b read a magazine, book or newspaper in
French..... 184
c attend anything organised by the Alliance
Française/BAL Ecosse/the French Institute..... 29
d watch Télé Journal or a film in French
on TV..... 182
e see a film in French at the cinema..... 58
f write a letter in French..... 126
g visit France..... 92
h listen to a radio broadcast in French..... 83

Q1.2c Any other activities that had you reading, writing, listening or speaking in French?

a member of the Cercle de Lecture at the Alliance Française	1
b translation work	2
c phone conversations	13
d interpreting/ direct translation	4
e pupil weekend conducted in French	1
f speaking in class	1
g listening to music	5

Q1.2d Which of the following in-service options would you find attractive?

a attending a 'bain de langue' in school time	152
b attending a 'bain de langue' at a weekend	44
c attending a conference conducted in French in school time	124
d attending a conference conducted in French at a weekend	34
e none of the above	6

Q1.2e What INSET to improve your spoken French would you like to see being offered by your division

a subsidized study visits/sabbaticals in France	35
b meetings with FLAs/ native speakers outwith school time	4
c other	30

Q1.3a How important do you think it is for the teacher to teach his/her pupils set phrases for classroom communication?

very important	107
fairly important	74
relatively unimportant	15
extremely unimportant	2

Q1.3b When pupils need to speak to you do you make it a rule that they do so in French?

	always	sometimes	never
a In S1	73	111	14
b In S2	69	103	15
c In S3	38	116	39
d In S4	28	91	63

****

Q2.1a Sex

male	67
female	132

Q2.1b Age

20-25	2
26-30	25
31-35	44
36-40	51
over 40	76

Q2.1c Are you a native speaker of French, or not?

yes	6
no	192

Q2.1d Please indicate which of the following degrees and/or certificates you have been awarded

a B.A / M.A. (Ord)	129
b B.A / M.A. (Hons)	64
c B.Ed. (Ord)	10
d B.Ed. (Hons)	0
e Higher Degree (e.g.M.Ed.)	6
f Licence - ès -en Lettres	3
g Teaching Certificate	183
h other	18

Q2.2a From which University did you receive your degree(s)

	first degree	second degree
	.:.	.:.
a University of Glasgow	155	
b University of Strathclyde	16	1
c University of Edinburgh	5	
d University of Aberdeen	9	
e University of Saint Andrews	4	
f University of Stirling	4	
h University in England	5	3
i University in France	3	1

Q2.2b From which training college did you receive your teaching certificate

Jordanhill	98
St Andrews / Notre Dame	46
Moray House	6
Aberdeen	5
Hamilton College	7
missing data	39

Q2.2c Was French your sole subject, or not?

sole subject	14
joint subject (first)	128
joint subject (second)	49
joint subject	3

Q2.2d in addition to French which subject if any are you qualified to teach?

English	9
German	99
Italian	22
Russian	4
Spanish	30
Other	11
missing data	26

Q2.2e Is your residence abroad with respect to French now complete?

yes	177
not yet	21

Q2.2g In the past five years, have you visited France or any other French- speaking country for a week-end or longer, or not? N = 168

no	27
Yes, 1 or 2 times	63
Yes, approximately 3 to 5 times	57
Yes, more than 5 times	20

Q2.4a Have there been any breaks in the continuity of your teaching service?

yes	72
no	129

Q2.4c Which of the following reasons if any corresponds to your break(s) in service?

a giving birth/raising children	53
b working/living abroad (in a French-speaking country)	6
c working/living abroad (in a non-French-speaking country)	13
d other	9

Q2.5a What is your present status?

not promoted	90
Assistant Principal Teacher of Modern Languages	19
Principal Teacher of Modern Languages	53
Assistant Principal Teacher of Guidance	14
Principal Teacher of Guidance	14
Senior post (formerly PT of Modern Languages)	9
Senior post (formerly PT of Guidance)	1

Q2.5b What kind of contract do you have?

a permanent	186
b supply	10
c full-time	187
d part-time	7

Q2.6 Have you had any first-hand experience of co-operative teaching, or not?

yes	184
no	16

****

N=184 for all following questions

Q3.1a Are you actively participating in co-operative teaching this session (1987-88), or not?

yes	158
no	26

Q3.2a Which of the following situations corresponds to your experience?

Teaching ...

a with the assistant(e) français(e) in my class	151
b with a college student in my class	57
c with a French-speaking colleague from my department in my class	145
d with the Principal Teacher of my department in my class	60
e with a remedial specialist in my class	44
f with myself as CT in the class of a colleague	149
g with myself as CT in the class of my PT	70
h other	14

Q3.2b Have you ever had the experience of teaching with ..

a a native speaker of French other than the FLA	32
b a remedial teacher	53

Q3.2c Has/have the remedial teacher (s) with whom you have taught ever been a French specialist?

yes	8
no	40
not applicable	134

Q3.2d Have you ever been a member of a team of co-operative teachers in any of the following situations?

	yes, regular occurrence : .:.		yes, isolated occurrence : .:.		no .:.
a with one class set by itself	26	14%	16	9%	100
b with more than one class in the same room	1	0.5%	9	5%	110

Q3.3a Whose decision was it to introduce co-operative teaching in your department?

democratic decision made by whole department.....	16
Principal Teacher's decision with departmental consultation.....	72
Principal Teacher's decision without departmental consultation.....	7
Head Teacher's decision with departmental consultation.....	43
Head Teacher's decision without departmental consultation.....	10
decision made before my arrival.....	7
other.....	5

Q3.4a Have you had any of the following kinds of help on how to implement CT?

a in-school training by the Principal Teacher.....	33
b papers from the Adviser in Modern Languages.....	74
c article in a journal.....	40
d out-of school training.....	10
e no help at all.....	55
f discussion within department.....	12
g talks from adviser/staff tutor.....	7
h meeting at Jordanhill.....	1
i other.....	16

Q3.4b What kind of practical INSET would you like to be given for CT?

Open question.

b talk given by experienced co-operative teachers.....	13
c information about successful co-operatively taught lessons.....	15
d video of good CT practice.....	39
e consortium/area/divisional meetings on CT.....	26
f visits to schools to observe CT.....	30
g divisional reports as to how CT is being implemented in different schools.....	2
h other.....	13

Q3.5a In undertaking co-operative teaching have you ever been at all afraid of the following?

	yes, at first	yes, even now	no
a fear of personality clash with the other teacher	51	25	88
b fear of methodology clash with the other teacher	57	45	64
c fear of being observed teaching	46	21	99
d fear of making mistakes speaking French	39	41	90

Open section

e fear of being insufficiently prepared	8		4
f fear of other teachers lack of discipline	5		3
g other	5		2

Q3.6 Please indicate whether you speak more, less, or the same amount of French with the following types of teacher?

	more French than usual	same amount of French as usual	less French than usual	not applicable
a with a native French speaker	81	74	7	12
b with a promoted colleague from your department	23	101	6	35
c with an unpromoted colleague from your department	29	131	7	5
d with a remedial teacher	4	49	12	81

Q3.7a How important are the following advantages of co-operative teaching?

	very important	fairly important	relatively unimportant	of very little importance
a CT facilitates individual learning...	109	55	11	6
b it allows greater attention for pupils with learning difficulties.....	143	36	2	1
c it increases pupil motivation.....	118	51	9	1
d it facilitates group and paired work.	154	28	1	0
e it is useful for meaningful presentation of new work.....	95	57	21	9
f it facilitates in-class testing.....	107	51	16	8
g it helps with absentees who have missed classwork.....	98	61	20	4
h it helps with discipline problems....	55	45	54	26
i it makes it easier to maintain use of target language.....	56	63	47	16
j it allows teacher to model linguistic interaction.....	121	54	4	2

Q3.7b Co-operative teaching also **(open question)**

a frees teacher to conduct speaking assignments.....	3
b provides someone to organise equipment.....	2
c provides someone to conduct warm-up talk while T deals with administration.....	2
d allows experienced teacher to demonstrate good example to inexperienced T.....	3
e provides the Ps with a good example of co-operation in action.....	3
f allows for cross-fertilisation of ideas among teachers..	6
g enables T to cover more material.....	2
h allows extension of more able.....	4
i enables pupils to hear "real" conversations in French	12
j increases foreign language input for learners.....	2

Q3.7c How important are the following things in determining the effectiveness of co-operative teaching?

	very important	fairly important	relatively unimportant	of very little importance
a If the CT is not a language specialist	110	48	17	2
b if there is a personality clash between the teachers	98	50	29	3
c if there is a methodology clash between the teachers	80	73	21	5
d if one or both teachers is/are inhibited in using French as the medium of instruction	65	90	20	5
e if there is insufficient time for planning the lesson	112	57	9	2
f if there is insufficient time for evaluating the success of the lesson	58	89	26	5
g if the teachers have had insufficient training in CT techniques	55	86	30	8
h if the class hasn't reached an appropriate point in the learning sequence	71	59	31	20

Q3.7d Further things which affect the success of CT. **Open question.**

a if the teacher has a negative attitude towards CT	4
b if there is a poor relationship between teachers	1

Q3.7e With which year groups would you be happy to have co-operative teaching all the time?

a In S1	126
b In S2	123
c In S3	53
d In S4	43

Q3.7f With which teacher would you prefer to teach co-operatively?

with a colleague from my own department.....	160
with a remedial specialist.....	3
with the assistant(e) français(e).....	15
with a student from teacher-training college...	1
other.....	1

Q3.7g To what better use could CT teacher resources be put

no better use.....	121
to reduce class size.....	37
to have remedial T prepare and simplify worksheets.....	1

Q3.8a What things does CT allow you to do that you would not do alone?
Open question.

a nothing.....	34
b monitoring paired speaking activities.....	37
c role play.....	38
d group work for different activities.....	47
e differentiation (remediation/extension)....	26
f presentation of new material.....	10
g modelling linguistic interaction.....	31
h games,songs quizzes.....	17
i checking worksheets.....	5
j taking a group elsewhere (e.g to lang/lab).	7

Q3.8b What things would you prefer to do alone without the CT?
Open question

a nothing.....	81
b grammar.....	47
c background.....	20
d presentation of new material.....	18
e audio visual presentation (e.g. audio visual).....	7
f drilling exercises.....	5
g listening exercises.....	15
h written exercises/skills for written exams.....	18
i reading.....	7
j whole class-testing/returning marks.....	15

Q3.8c How good a use of the CT are the following activities that the teachers might do together?

	a very good use	a good use	a poor use	a very poor use
a presentation of new points of grammar.	25	34	57	34
b presentation of new vocabulary items..	50	54	27	21
c language drills.....	68	60	35	17
d simulation demonstration.....	152	26	1	4

Q3.8f How good a use of the CT are the following activities that the T might set the CT to do?

	a very good use	a good use	a poor use	a very poor use
a monitoring individualised learning....	106	42	2	0
b participating in paired and group activities.....	156	26	2	0
c monitoring paired and group activities..				
d remediation (with a remedial specialist).....	87	43	20	11
e remediation (with a non-remedial specialist).....	85	77	10	5
f testing.....	75	69	32	7
g correction of written work.....	51	62	44	26

Q3.8g Please list any other good uses of the co-operative teacher.

Open question.

a introduction of the formal mode of address.....	4
b letting Ps practise new language on the CT.....	2
c giving Ps the opportunity to listen to adults interacting.....	3
d using PALE.....	9
e differentiation.....	5
f extending better pupils.....	9
g extraction for remediation.....	7
h extraction of disruptive pupils.....	2
i preparation of teaching materials.....	3
j preparation of Ps for tests.....	2

Q3.8h Please list any further poor uses of the CT?

Open question.

a whole class listening exercises.....	3
b audio-visual presentations (film strip, video)...	4
c taking away half the class just to lessen numbers.....	4
d dividing the class in 2 and each teacher teaches one group.....	5
f using the CT to cover for absent colleagues.....	2
g having an unwilling CT in the classroom.....	2
h having CT not actively involved in the lesson....	10
i using the CT as an extra disciplinarian.....	4

Appendix C
The Co-operative Teaching Analysis System

In this appendix, the full specification of COPTAS is given. Dimensions 1, 2, 4, 5 which were omitted in chapter 3 are discussed here. Full definitions of dimensions 3 and 6 are also given.

1. Dimension 1 - Teacher Mode of Involvement

The Co-operative teaching Analysis System dimension "Teacher Mode of Involvement" is designed to analyse the nature of the roles of teachers involved in co-operative teaching.[1] There is considerable variation in the ways that co-operative teachers can be used. In some classes the co-operative teacher may be excluded from the teaching process while in others he works with the class teacher as a single teaching unit presenting new material or modelling linguistic interaction in a role play. This type of co-operative teaching may be described as Partnered Co-operative Teaching. In these circumstances it would be appropriate for the co-operative teacher to take over control of the teaching process if the class teacher were called out of the class for any reason, or if he had to deal with a prolonged administrative interruption. A third type of co-operative teaching, Parallel Co-operative Teaching, has the teachers working independently of each other performing the same or different tasks. The different categories of this dimension are designed to make it possible for the pattern of co-operative teacher obtaining in each lesson to be described. Each teacher is, therefore, coded separately.

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[1] Mitchell et al (1981) report only limited success in employing the dimension of "Teacher Mode of Involvement" in their study because of difficulty in differentiating between "instructing", "interacting" and "watching/helping". In COPTAS this dimension was greatly simplified, partly to avoid the problems experienced by the coders in the Stirling study, but also because a more complex dimension was judged unnecessary.

DIMENSION 1 - TEACHER MODE OF INVOLVEMENT

1 Not involved	The teacher is is deemed to be "not involved" in classroom interaction if he is not actively engaged in the teaching process. He may be dealing with administrative interruptions such as a classroom visitor, or setting up equipment. During prolonged periods of interaction between pupils and one teacher within a co-operatively presented language practice activity, the second teacher would be coded as "not involved" if he were listening to the interaction and perhaps making an occasional comment.
2 Teaching	This is the default category. The teacher is deemed to be in the teaching mode when he has the attention of the whole class, but is not involved in demonstrating. Examples of teaching are organising the classroom; distributing books and pencils; and presenting new, or revising learned, vocabulary or syntactic structures using flashcards and other visual stimuli.
3 Demonstrating	The teacher is deemed to be demonstrating if he is modelling linguistic interaction in the context of a meaningful dialogue or conversation with another teacher

	and/or with a pupil or pupils, with the remainder of the class acting as an audience. An example of this would be a rehearsal for a paired activity, or a role play.
4 Monitoring/helping	The teacher is deemed to be in the monitoring/helping mode when overseeing a set task. Typically this will occur when the class is engaged in paired and group activities, but the teacher may also be in this mode when overseeing a whole class writing activity. In this mode, however, teacher-pupil interaction is on a one-to-one, one-to-small group basis. If the teacher breaks from this pattern to speak to the whole class this would constitute a change in category to "teaching".

2. Dimension 2 - Class Grouping

This dimension is intended to obtain information on the incidence of learner-centred activities by differentiating between whole class activities where attention is focused on the teacher and paired and group activities. This dimension is similar to the Stirling dimension of "Class Grouping". The first two categories remain the same, but the COPTAS dimension devotes only two categories (paired and group activities) to differentiating between co-operative and individual tasks in contrast with Stirling's five. Group activities are divided into the "same", or "different" tasks.

DIMENSION 2 - CLASS GROUPING

1 whole class (excluding pupil demonstration)	There is one central activity taking place in the classroom and the attention of all pupils is focussed on the same stimulus: the teacher, the blackboard, workbooks etc.
2 Pupil demonstration	There is one central activity going on focussed on one or more pupils, with the rest of the class functioning as the audience. A pupil may be acting the part of the teacher, or a group of pupils might be performing a role play. The teacher(s) may or may not form part of the demonstration.
3 Paired activity	The pupils are assigned to work co-operatively in pairs.
4 Group Activity (same task)	Pupils are assigned to work co-operatively in groups. Each group is assigned the same task.
5 Group Activity (different task)	Pupils are assigned to work co-operatively in groups. Each group is assigned different tasks.

3. Dimension 3 - Activity/Topic of Discourse: Definitions

The justification for the design of dimension 3 is discussed in chapter 3. Here the definitions of each category and sub-category are provided.

Categories are in bold. Sub-categories appear in plain text

A Classroom Management Discourse

Ø **Administration**	The category describes all discourse addressed to a classroom visitor. It also includes discourse with pupils when dealing with administrative matters which relate to the organisation of the school as a whole.
1 **Organising the Classroom**	The discourse concerns classroom organisation which occurs on a daily basis, typically at the start and end of a lesson although it also includes the setting up of audio and video equipment during the lesson. Examples of classroom organisation discourse are: greetings and farewells; distribution of books, exercise books and pencils; taking the roll; and opening and shutting the window. The instructions "levez-vous" or "asseyez-vous" are included in the category of "classroom organisation", provided that they are uttered in isolation within a classroom organisation segment. Where they form part of a longer utterance which clearly pertains to pupil indiscipline they are categorised as instances of "discipline".
2 Pupil-initiated Discourse in French	Teacher discourse arising out of pupil initiated requests is categorised as "classroom organisation" if the request is made in English. If the pupil

		makes the request unprompted in French, it is categorised as "Pupil-Initiated Discourse in French". For example the pupil might say spontaneously: "j'ai oublié mon cahier" or "Est-ce que je peux aller à la toilette?".
3	**Activity Instructions**	The discourse pertains to the setting up and smooth running of a language practice activity and is the default category for most discourse occurring during such activities. Activity instructions vary in length and complexity, ranging from short utterances such as "écoutez et répétez" to complex instructions for group work tasks. The organisation of seating for paired and group activities and the assignment of roles for role play are included in this category. Statements such as " Ok ça suffit" which draw a language practice activity to a close are also categorised as "instructions".
4	Issuing Homework	The discourse concerns the setting of homework tasks.
5	**Informal Chat/ Real Life**	The discourse concerns aspects of the pupils' and teachers' home and/or school life. Such discourse occurs in an informal mode, most probably at the start or end of a lesson. While it is possible that the participants in the discourse will not speak the truth

		(because of inadequate knowledge of the foreign language) any "lies" are voluntary. The language in such exchanges is not prescribed by the teacher.
6	**Discipline**	The discourse pertains to pupils' physical behaviour which is unacceptable in some respect, and may be directed at individuals or at the class as a whole. Reference would normally be made directly or indirectly to a part of the pupils' anatomy. For example: mouth/ears — "c'est moi qui parle et toi qui écoute"; body — "face the front".
7	Assessment of Performance	The discourse refers to linguistic behaviour (other than written work). It includes requests for clarification such as "plus fort" when the teacher has not heard or understood what the pupil has said. It may constitute praise for work well done as in " vous avez bien travaillé" or censorious as in " I have to say I've heard the majority of you speaking better". Requests such as "I want to see more hands" are categorised as assessment of performance since such a statement represents a judgement that the class is not working sufficiently hard. Discourse concerning performance in a game (e.g. totalling up scores and identifying the winner) is also included in this category.

8	**Running Tests**	The discourse concerns all aspects of setting up and conducting tests of oral, aural, or written competence.
9	**Correcting Written Work**	The discourse concerns the correction of a written exercise. This may simply involve the teacher's repetition of correct forms, but also includes judgements about the appropriateness and accuracy of responses.
10	**Explaining Meanings**	The discourse concerns all discussion of meaning. The category includes discourse which follows a negative response to a comprehension check such as "vous avez compris?", and may be preceded by the prompt: "qu'est-ce que ça veut dire en anglais?"
11	Discussing Appropriate Language	The discourse involves the explicit discussion of appropriate syntactic structures and/or items of vocabulary needed to complete an exercise. The teacher may precede such discussion with the question "how do you say X in French?"
12	**Teaching Background**	The discourse concerns aspects of life and culture in France.
13	**Discussing Language Objectives**	The discourse concerns the linguistic points which are going to be taught during the current lesson or over the next few weeks. Discussion between

		co-operating teachers about what they plan to do during the lesson is categorised in this way, as is discussion with pupils about the linguistic content of the next unit of their language course.
14	**Linguistic Discussion** Explaining Grammar	The discourse concerns explicit reference to the syntactic structure of the French language. Discussing the notion of gender or verb forms are included in this category.
15	Sociolinguistic Discussion	The discourse concerns discussion about the appropriateness of language for the context in which it is uttered. A discussion on the use of the "tu" and "vous" would be categorised in this way.

B <u>Language Practice Discourse</u>

16	**Exercise** (Drill)	This category includes discourse on all aspects of language practice which has the object of teaching new and/or revising known structures and vocabulary. Although the language may be practised in a meaningful context the emphasis is clearly on syntactic form rather than on meaning.
17	Exercise (information-/ opinion-gap)	The discourse concerns language practice exercises containing an information-gap or an opinion-gap. This means that at least one person

		involved in the linguistic exchange has information which the other(s) lack(s). An exercise designed to practice a specific syntactic structure which asked pupils to give their opinions on the relative attractiveness of different pop-stars, or one which practised giving directions by requiring one pupil to supply information about the lay-out of a town so that his partner could fill in details about buildings on a blank street map would fall into this category. The language to be used in the transaction is restricted to the linguistic forms which are currently being taught.
18	Exercise (open-ended)	The discourse concerns a language practice exercise containing an information-gap or an opinion-gap, but without constraints on the language to be used to complete the task. An exercise which requires pupils to poll the other members of their class to produce statistics about the average amount of pocket money received by class members, and about what it was normally spent on, would fit into this category.
19	Translation Exercise	The discourse concerns the activity of translating from French into English or vice versa. A reading comprehension with questions in English would be categorised in this way. The exercise

		may be written or oral.
20	Copywriting	The discourse concerns the activity of copying new vocabulary and/or structures from the blackboard into exercise books
21	**Role play** (scripted)	The discourse concerns the performance of a scene which simulates real life, such as ordering drinks in a café. Roles are assigned to the participants who may or may not be expected to play the part of themselves. A script is, provided (which may or may not be in written form) to which the learners are expected to adhere, and the linguistic content of the scene is prescribed. The learners know exactly what they are expected to say and how they should say it.
22	Role play (open -ended)	The discourse concerns the performance of a scene which simulates real life, such as ordering drinks in a café. Roles are assigned to the participants who may or may not be expected to play the part of themselves. Although a basic script is provided, the learners are free to use whatever linguistic resources they have at their disposal in order to complete the task.

23	**Game**	The discourse concerns a language practice exercise which involves competition between the teacher and the pupils or among the pupils themselves, and typically involves points being awarded for correct answers and winners being identified.
24	**Other**	All other instances of teacher discourse which do not easily fit into any of the categories defined above.

4. Dimension 4: Stimulus

This dimension concerns the focus of attention of the learners during the lesson. The default category is "teacher(s)" since for much of the lesson the pupils are looking at and listening to the teacher(s) alone. Where attention is being paid to a filmstrip or the blackboard, it is assumed that, provided the teacher is speaking at the same time, the pupils are also attending to the teacher. Other combinations of stimuli can be coded. An exercise which involves listening to a tape-recording while simultaneously reading the tape-script would be coded 4/7.

This is a new dimension in COPTAS which did not figure in the Stirling system and is supplied to ensure that full information about the nature of the language activities is given. If, for example, a paired activity is coded as having as stimulus a worksheet, reference to the field notes can ascertain the exact nature of the task set. The nature of taped listening exercises can be checked by reference to the tape-scripts in the course book.

DIMENSION 4 - STIMULUS

1	Teacher(s) only	the attention of the pupils (looking

		and listening) is on the teacher(s) alone
2	Pupil(s)	the attention of the pupils (looking and listening) is on one or more than one pupil who is/are in the demonstration mode (dimension 3; category 2)
3	Teacher(s) and pupil(s)	The attention of the pupils (looking and listening) is on a demonstration performed by the teacher(s) and pupil(s).
4	Tape	The attention of the pupils (listening) is on a tape-recording
5	Flashcards	The attention of the pupils (looking) is on flashcards
6	Film/slides	The attention of the pupils (looking) is on a filmstrip, slides, or a video recording
7	Workbook	The attention of the pupils (looking) is on the course workbook
8	Worksheet	The attention of the pupils (looking) is on a worksheet
9	Blackboard	The attention of the pupils (looking) is on the blackboard
10	Other	the attention of the pupils is on any other stimulus.

5. Dimension 5 - Pupil Mode of Involvement

This dimension in COPTAS has been adopted largely unaltered from the Stirling dimension of the same name, and is designed to identify the involvement of individual pupils in both receptive and productive channels of communication in the classroom. The Stirling system is binary; thus, during a language drill the learners would be +listening and -speaking when listening to the teacher's model, and +listening +speaking when giving their response. Mitchell et al. (1981) point out that to apply this system strictly it would be necessary for the researcher to code each change in channel as a new segment. Since this would result in an unreasonably large number of segments, most of which would last less than the minimum 30 second segment length, they suggest that in whole class situations (where at any given moment different pupils may be involved in classroom events in different ways) the pupil mode of involvement should be coded according to the *pattern of expectation* obtaining at that moment in the classroom. When the activity in question is a language drill, the understanding shared by teacher and learners is that at times the learners will listen, and at times they will respond, and while the two channels of communication alternate such that the learners do not both speak and listen simultaneously, the pattern of expectation is that they will do both within the activity. A drill then should be coded as being +listening, +speaking.

This notion of "patterns of expectation" is relevant for the coding of all of the five dimensions of the Stirling Lesson Analysis System and all six dimensions of the Co-operative Teaching Analysis System.

To simplify coding, the COPTAS Pupil Mode of Involvement is not binary. Any number of channels of communication are coded as present if they are seen to be present and not if they are absent, as follows:

DIMENSION 5: PUPIL MODE OF INVOLVEMENT[2]

L Listening	Pupils are considered to be in listening mode of involvement if required to attend to any auditory language source.
S Speaking	Pupils are in the speaking mode of involvement if they are producing, or actively preparing to produce spoken language.
R Reading	Reading involves attending to any written text .
W Writing	Pupils are in the writing mode of involvement if producing any kind of graphic text or actively preparing to do so.
D Doing	Doing involves the carrying out of some non-linguistic overt physical activity in accordance with academic plans determined by the teacher, for example in response to discipline measures.
L Looking	Looking involves attending to any non-linguistic stimulus, usually visual.

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[2] The definitions for these categories are quoted from the Stirling Lesson Analysis System "Pupil Mode of Involvement" dimension (Mitchell, Parkinson and Johstone,1981: 90-91).

6. Dimension 6: Teacher Language: definitions

The justification for the design of dimension 6 is discussed in chapter 6. Here the definitions of each category and sub-category are provided.

Categories are in bold. Sub-categories appear in plain text

Ø	**Linguistic Prompt/ Response**	The discourse takes the form of questions and responses that the teacher produces as linguistic prompts in a language practice activity. An example of this would be the question and answer "Qu'est-ce que tu aimes manger? Moi, j'adore les frites".
1	**French**	The discourse is predominately conducted in French with the occasional word in English. For example the teacher may systematically start each French utterance with "right" but continue to speak entirely in French.
2	**English**	The discourse is predominately conducted in English with the occasional word in French. for example the teacher may say "bon" at the start of an otherwise English utterance
3	**French/English**	The discourse involves switches from French to English.
4	Juxtaposition	The discourse involves a switch from French into English or English into

		French within the same sentence, as in "ouvrez vos cahiers at the back".
5	Translation	The discourse involves a direct translation of French to English as in "pas de volontaires, no volunteers".

Appendix D

The Stirling "Systematic" Coding System with Simplified Definitions (adapted from Mitchell, Parkinson and Johnstone, 1981)

Dimension 1 : Topic of Discourse

1.	Civilisation française	The discourse concerns life and culture in the foreign language community
2.	General linguistic notions	The discourse concerns the nature of language notions in general and ways of analysing it
3.	Language points (course)	The discourse involves explicit, analytic discussion of particular grammatical structures, semantic notions, or functions of the FL being studied, drawn from the main course book in use in the classes
4.	Language points (other)	As 3., but involving structures etc. other than those involved in the course book
5.	Situation (course)	The discourse concerns a third party situation narrated or presented in course materials
6.	Situation (other)	As 5., but concerning other third party situations
7.	Real life	The discourse concerns aspects of the pupils' or teachers' actual life and

	interests, at home and at school
8/9. Fragmented/ non-contextualised	The discourse concerns no coherent, substantive topic (its unity and coherence rest in formal aspects of the language being practised)
10. Routine procedures	The discourse concerns classroom management
11. Pupils' performance	the discourse concerns how well the pupil has done
12. Other	Any other topic.

Dimension 2 : Language Activities

1. Translation.	Discourse in which lexical meanings of F.L. are made explicit through L1, or vice versa (e.g.translation exercises or the giving of 'vocabulary' notes)
2. L1.	All discourse in the native language
3. Real FL.	FL discourse in which substantive messages are being transmitted, and the focus of attention is on the meaning of what is being said
4. Transposition.	FL practice discourse realised simultaneously in both written and spoken codes, where the focus of attention is on the relationship between them (e.g. reading aloud or dictation)

5. Presentation	FL practise discourse presenting text to pupils with the focus on global comprehension of lexical meaning (e.g. listening or reading comprehension)
6. Imitation	FL practice discourse where pupil utterances imitative of FL models are expected (e.g. repetition or copy writing)
7/8 Drill/exercise	FL practice discourse with an expected component of pupil utterances, with the focus of attention on syntactic form and/or the appropriacy of utterances to their discourse context (e.g. structural or question-and-answer drills)
9. Compound	All discourse involving brief occurrences of more than one of the above categories, in regular, structured sequence.

Dimension 3: Teacher Mode of Involvement

1 Not involved	The teacher is not communicating with the pupils, nor in general attending to pupil activities
2 Instructing	The teacher is communicating with the whole class, typically by speech, but possibly also by public writing, mime etc.

3	Interacting	The teacher engages in interactive public discourse with the whole class. While interaction is likely to be with successive pupils singly, 'readiness to speak' is required of all pupils.
4	Watching/helping	The teacher is overseeing the carrying out by the pupils of a pre-set task.
5	Participating	The teacher is not leading, but participating in an activity along with the students. For instance, the teacher may sing, or repeat taped utterances with the pupils.
6	Working with a group	The teacher is interacting with designated group of pupils only. His/her relationship with the rest of the class is limited to 'eyes-in-back-of-head' monitoring.
7	Working with individual	As in 6, but he teacher is working with a single pupil privately.

Dimension 4: Pupil Mode of Involvement

1.	Listening	A Pupil is considered to be in listening mode of involvement if he/she is attending to any auditory language source.
2.	Looking	Looking involves attending to any non-linguistic stimulus, typically visual.

3.	Reading	Reading involves attending to any written text.
4	Speaking	A pupil is in the speaking mode of involvement if he/she is producing, or actively preparing to produce oral language.
5	Doing	Doing involves the carrying out of some non-linguistic overt physical activity in accordance with academic plans determined by the teacher, for example in response to discipline measures.
6	Writing	A pupil is in the writing mode of involvement if he/she is producing any kind of graphic text or actively preparing to do so.

Dimension 5 : Class Grouping

1.	Whole class	There is one central activity going on, dependent on the teacher(s), or another source of stimulus, but not on a 'pupil demonstration'. The class functions as one group
2	Pupil demonstration	There is one central activity going on, focussed on a pupil demonstration. (e.g. on pupil taking the role of the teacher, or a group of pupils acting out a scene with the rest forming an audience.

3. Cooperative work (same task)	Pupils are assigned to work cooperatively in more than one group, but groups are assigned identical tasks.
4. Cooperative (different task)	Pupils are assigned to work cooperatively in more than one group, and groups are assigned different tasks.
5. Individual work (same task)	Pupils are set to work alone, without cooperation, but the task set is identical for all.
6. Individual work (different task)	Pupils are set to work alone, without cooperation, and at least some of the tasks set are different from those set for others.
7. Cooperative and individual	Some pupils are working cooperatively and the rest are working as individuals. Tasks may be the same or different.

Appendix E
Coding in Practice

1. Partial Lesson Transcript

Class: First year

Number of Pupils Present: 23

Lesson: Second co-operatively taught lesson

Teacher B2 is referred to as (Madame) T throughout

Teacher B1 is referred to as (Monsieur) CT throughout

Seg. no.		
1	T	Alors, silence
	CT	Où sont les autres? Où sont les autres?
	T	La classe, où est ma classe?
	CT	La classe. Où est la classe?
	T	Moi je suis désolée.
	P	Les arts ménagers.
	CT	Aux arts ménagers, oui.
	T	Les arts ménagers avec le sang.
2	CT	Qu'est-ce que qu'on a fait cuire aujourd'hui, un gâteau?
	P	Uhuh.
	CT	Un gâteau. Oui.
	P	Rock buns.
	CT	Rock buns, les gâteaux de rochers. (laughs)
	T	Moi, j'avais deux gâteaux hier; hier j'avais deux gâteaux, et hier j'avais mal au ventre.
3	CT	Ah les voilà. Voilà les gâteaux. Ah voilà les gâteaux.
	T	Vite, ah vite. Et merci, merci. Il n'y avait pas besoin de ça, merci. Ah Monsieur tu as faim, tu as faim?
	CT	Oui j'ai faim.
	P	Mine's the paler ones, and I couldn't...(*incomprehensible*)
	T	Oh dis-donc. Quelle est la différence?
	CT	Ils ne sont pas empoisonnés, non?
	CT	Alors, quelle est la différence? C'est la même chose? C'est la même chose, non? Alors, quelle est la différence?

3 CT Ce sont des crêpes. Ce sont des crêpes, oui? What are crêpes?

P Do you want one?

4 T Well, I would really love one, but I wouldn't like to take away ... Il n'y en a un, deux, trois, quatre, cinq, et nous sommes trois;[1] j'ai besoin de trois gâteaux.

P Miss can I sit... (*incomprehensible*)

T Oui. Où sont les autres? L'heure passe.

CT Où sont tes gâteaux?

PP (*incomprehensible*)

T The blood. Lovely.

CT Où sont tes gâteaux? Tu n'en as pas? Tu as des gâteaux, non? Ah pourquoi pas, ah..

5 T Vite, vite, vite, vite. Et les garçons, où sont les garçons? Alors asseyez-vous, je commence, je commence. Asseyez-vous les filles. Et toi aussi. Alors, je commence, je n'attends plus.

T Alors, bonjour les filles, et bonjour Grant. Bonjour la classe.

PP Bonjour Mme T.

T Qu'est-ce que la classe dit à Monsieur CT?

PP Bonjour Monsieur CT.

CT Bonjour les filles. Ah, pardon.

T Et Grant.

CT Bonjour toi aussi.

6 T Alors je vais commencer avec un jeu. Alors, les filles contre les garçons. Ça va? Ça va?

PP Oui.

T Non, les filles et Monsieur CT; il peut être un garçon. Ça va?

CT Et à plusieurs années, oui.

T Et les filles contre les garçons.

CT Les-voilà qui arrivent.

(*Pupils come in and hand over cookery things*)

---

[1]Teacher error.

7 T Vite, vite, vite; avec tous ces cadeaux pour moi; merci Monsieur.

PP Non,non, non.

T Non, non pas pour moi? Alors asseyez-vous vite. Il y a des autres, il y a des autres. Non, où sont les autres? Qui manquent? Karen, Nyree.

PP (*incomprehensible*)

T Assieds-toi là, là. Alors, sh, sh, silence. Alors, l'heure passe. J'ai commencé.

8 T On commence avec un petit jeu - les filles contre les garçons -jusqu' à ce que j'attends les autres.[2] Il y a des garçons qui ne sont pas arrivés. Il y a Craig, Stephen. Qui manque?

PP Andrew

T Ah oui. Alors, un petit jeu. Alors, je vais montrer la carte, et on doit faire l'activité. Ça va? Les filles contre les garçons. Alors, je vais commencer. Monsieur, tu veux choisir?

9 CT Pardon, je n'ai pas fait attention.

T Dis-donc c'est terrible, tu auras un exercice ce soir.

CT Je dormais oui, ZZZ

T Alors tu est ennuyeux Monsieur?[3] Je t'ennuie? Je t'ennuie

CT Ennuyé? Non, pas du tout, pas du tout.

10 T Alors, tu veux choisir, tu veux choisir une fille?

CT Une fille. Ah oui, une fille, une belle jeune fille, voilà.

T Qui? Marg.. Margaret viens, viens à moi. Alors, Margaret va faire l'activité et les garçons ... alors.

CT Alors, nous, nous devons deviner.

T Oui, oui, c'est ça. Qu'est-ce que c'est?

P La fauteuil.

T Ah non. Pas deux points. Qu'est-ce qu'il aurait dû... Ce n'est pas une fauteuil. C'est...

---

[2]Teacher error.

[3]Teacher error.

P Le

T Le fauteuil, ou un fauteuil. Un point, pas deux. Tu aurais dû avoir dit le fauteuil, ou un fauteuil.[4]

11 T I didn't quite hear you, but you definitely didn't say the masculine. You said la or une, the feminine.

12 T Alors un garcon. Tu veux choisir Monsieur?

CT Un garçon. Ah oui. Voilà, tu viens?

T Voilà. Il vient.

(*Silence*)

T Qu'est-ce que c'est?

(*Silence*)

T Oui?

P C'est le frigo.

T Non ce n'est pas le frigo. Alors, un garçon, pour un point.

P Le machine laver.

T Non, ce n'est pas la machine à laver, ou la télé. C'est la table. Alors pas de points.

CT Ça c'était quoi, c'était quoi?

T Qu'est-ce que c'est ca? Qu'est-ce que c'est?

CT La table?

P C'est la table.

T Bien. Oui, c'est la table. Maintenant, encore une fille. Tu veux choisir?

CT Euh, Linda.

T Linda.

(*Silence*)

T C'est difficile, oui. C'est difficile.

(*Silence*)

P Le frigo.

T Ah non, pardon, c'est les garçons, c'est les garçons. Oui, David?

P La machine à laver.

T Non, ce n'est pas ça.

P Les meubles.

---

[4]Teacher error.

T Oui, c'est, or ce sont les meubles.[5]

CT C'était difficile.

T Oui, c'était difficile. Alors, qui est-ce? Un garçon?

CT Tu veux essayer? Alors, vas-y.

(*Silence*)

(*Pupils enter*)

13 T Vite, vite, j'ai entendu. I've heard all about the problem boys, so just sit down and join the lesson. We've lost lots of time.

T Il y a des places là. Il y a une table. Alors ... Oh pardon, pardon.

CT C'est ta place? Non? Assieds-toi là!

P Le frigo.

14 T Oui, le frigo. Bien, encore. Andrew, viens ici. Ah non, c'est une fille. Pardon, c'est une fille. Oui, oui tu peux venir. C'est le dernier jeu.

(*Silence*)

T Pour les garçons.

(*Silence*)

T Qu'est-ce que c'est ça? Oui?

P C'est la machine à laver.

T Bien c'est la machine à laver. Alors encore, Monsieur CT va faire quelque chose, parce que il y en a trois points pour les filles, trois pour les garçons.[6] Alors Monsieur, je vais montrer la carte.

CT Quelque chose, quelque chose de facile j'espère.

T Ne regardez pas!

CT Ah oui, bien sûr.

T Alors, qu'est-ce que c'est?

15 T Both boys and girls get a shot answering.

16 T C'est ça?

CT Non, non, je réfléchis.

T Il pense, il pense, il ne sait pas?

---

[5]The word "or" is English here.

[6]Teacher error.

CT Oui, alors...

T Mais ce que je vois d'ici! Ce n'est pas vrai. Oui?

P C'est la chaise

P La table

17 T Oui, bien.

CT La table. C'était ça, oui.

T/CT (*same time*) Alors deux points pour les filles. Alors, qui a gagné?

CT Comment représenter une table?

T C'est ça? C'est ça, oui? (*adds up points on the blackboard wrongly*). Toi, non.

PP Non

T Pourquoi?

CT Non, six points pour les garçons, n'est-ce pas?

P Cinq, les filles

T C'est six. Cinq pour les filles. Alors qui a gagné?

CT Et six pour les garçons.

T Les filles, les filles, les gens les plus intelligents ont gagné.

18 T Alors tu veux sortir, Monsieur?

CT Au revoir (*quietly*). Au revoir (*very loudly*)

T (*Same time as PP*) Au revoir Monsieur CT.

PP Au revoir.

T Monsieur CT.

CT Je vais prendre un café. A plus tard.

CT (*goes out*)

T (*goes to door with flashcards and hands them to CT*), Tu as oublié (*laughter*). Où est-ce que je mets la table?

T Alors fais attention! (*laughs*).

T (*Comes into class leaving CT outside*)

CT (*knocks on door*)

T Ah qui est-ce, qui est-ce?

(*KNOCK*)

T Qui est-ce? Qui-est-ce?

P C'est Monsieur CT.

T Ah mais, qui est-ce? Oui. Beautifully said. Qui est-ce? Qui est-ce?

19 CT (*from outside the door*) Moi, je suis le déménageur.

T Entrez! Entrez!

CT Moi, je suis le déménageur (*CT comes in carrying the TV flashcard*)

T Entrez, entrez. Qui est-ce?

CT Oh, c'est lourd.

T Qui est-ce?

P It's the removal man.

T Ah oui, mais je parle en français. Toi tu parles en français.[7] Qui est-ce?

P C'est la déménageur (*wrong pronunciation and stress*)

CT Oui, Monsieur CT est le déménageur. Oui alors

T Toute la classe, écoutez puis répétez! Je suis...

CT Je suis le déménageur.

20 T Toute la classe.

PP Je suis le déménageur.

CT Déménageur.

T Encore une fois.

PP Le déménageur.

T Qui est-ce? Qui est-ce, oui?

P Le déménageur.

T Bien, qui est-ce? Qui est-ce?

P Le déménageur.

T Bien, qui est-ce? Oui, Alison?

P Le déménageur.

21 T Bien. Alors, bonjour Monsieur. Ça va?

CT Alors, euh, bonjour, oh, ça va. C'est lourd. Où est-ce que je mets a télé, enfin?

T Ah la télé, em ...[8]

CT Où est-ce que je mets...

T Dans la salle de séjour.

---

[7]Teacher error.

[8] "em" is an English sound here.

CT Dans la salle de séjour, où ça?

T Ah, eh, là.

CT Là . Ah oui, voilà. Merci.

T Merci, merci.

CT Dans la salle de séjour. Voilà. Alors, il y a d'autres choses dans le camion.

T Merci.

PP (*laughter*)

CT Deux moments.

T Ah, voilà la voiture de déménagement.

CT Ah oui.

T Qu'est-ce que c'est la voiture de déménagement?

P (*incomprehensible*)

T Non, non, pas la chaise. Mais je vois la voiture de déménagement. Je l'avais presque frappé. Oui?

P (*incomprehensible*)

T Ah non. Qu'est -ce que c'est ça, je vois là -bas? Je vois la voiture de déménagement. Qu'est-ce que c'est?

P (*incomprehensible*)

T Non. Alors, je vois la ... Je vois tous les meubles, et je vois la voiture de déménagement.

P (*incomprehensible*)

T Ah non, ne regarde pas!

P (*incomprehensible*)

T Oui, oui, je vois la voiture de déménagement.

CT Brm brm, brm brm, je suis arrivé.

T Alors, qui est-ce?

CT Dans ma voiture.

T Qui est-ce?

P Le déménageur.

T Ah oui. Voici le déménageur. Entrez!

(*Pupil enters*)

22 CT Bonjour

T Bien, entrez! Bonjour, Mademoiselle. Bonjour Mademoiselle. Bonjour. Hello Nyree.

P Hello

T Bonjour. Bonjour Nyree. Bonjour Madame T (*whisper*).

P Bonjour Madame T.

CT Bonjour Nyree.

T Merci merci, ça va? Ça va? Ça va? Ça va?

P Ça va bien, merci.

T Bien alors, assieds-toi!

P Et toi, ça va?

T Alors, ça va bien. Ça va bien aussi. Oui, oui. Tu peux t'asseoir à côté de Laura. Ça va.

T Ok we're just...

23 CT Alors, c'est moi encore.

T Ah, voici le déménageur.

CT Ma voiture est devant la maison. Oui, ma voiture.

T Ma maison, ma maison, ma maison

CT Ah pardon. Alors, où est-ce que je mets la chaise s'il vous plaît?

T Eh, dans la salle à manger s'il vous plaît, Monsieur.

CT Où ça, où ça?

T C'est là.

CT Ah voilà. Ça va tomber. Je pense que je vais mettre toutes (*laugh*) les cartes. Voilà

T Toutes? Alors. Le déménageur, il part. Il va à la voiture de déménagement

24 T We're still flitting Nyree. No we're moving. In case you're feeling mixed up.

Table 9 Coding in Practice

Teacher: B2

CT: B1

Lesson: CT X 1

Segment number		Co-op teacher Mode	Teacher mode	Class grouping	Activity	Stimulus	Pupil Involvement	Teacher language	Co-op teacher language
1	Alors, silence	3	3	1	1	1	L	1	1
2	Qu'est-ce qu'on a fait cuire?	3	3	1	5	1	L	1	1
3	What's a crêpe?	3	3	1	10	1	L	2	-
4	Well, I would really love one	3	3	1	5	1	L	3	1
5	Vite, vite, vite, les garçons	3	3	1	1	1	LD	1	1
6	Alors, je vais commencer avec les filles	3	3	1	3	1	LD	1	1
7	Vite, vite, vite avec tous les cadeaux	3	3	1	1	1	LD	1	-
8	J'ai commencé. On commence avec	3	3	1	2	1	L	1	-
9	Pardon. Je n'ai pas fait attention	3	3	1	5	1	L	1	1
10	Alors, tu veux choisir?	3	3	1	23	1	LDS	1	1
11	I didn't quite hear you, but	3	3	1	7	1	L	2	-
12	Alors, un garçon	3	3	1	23	1	LDS	1	1
13	Vite, vite, j'ai entendu	3	3	1	1	1	LD	5	-
14	Oui, le frigo. Bien. Encore	3	3	1	23	1	LDS	1	1
15	Both boys and girls get a shot	3	3	1	2	1	L	2	-
16	C'est-ça	3	3	1	23	1	L	1	1
17	Alors deux points	3	3	1	7	1	L	1	1
18	Alors, tu veux sortir?	3	3	1	5	1	L	1	1
19	Moi, je suis le déménageur.	4	4	1	22	5	L	1	1
20	Toute la classe, écoutez puis répétez	4	4	1	16	5	LS	1	1
21	Bien alors. Bonjour Monsieur	4	4	1	22	5	L	1	1
22	Bonjour (pupil comes in late)	4	4	1	5	1	L	1	1
23	Alors, c'est moi encore.	4	4	1	22	5	L	1	1
24	We're still flitting, Nyree.	4	4	1	3	1	L	2	-

Appendix F
EXPLANATION OF STATISTICAL PROCEDURES USED IN CHAPTER 5

Choice of Multiple Regression rather than Analysis of Variance

Multiple regression was chosen for this study rather than analysis of variance (ANOVA) because the former is the procedure used by social scientists in survey research. Analysis of variance is seldom used in survey research. Firstly, ANOVA is more appropriate for the analysis of data arising out of a controlled experiment of the pretest — treatment — post test variety where relatively few variables have to be controlled for. In the real world very large numbers of variables are involved. In the Co-operative Teaching Survey, 31 independent variables were included in the analysis. Secondly, and most importantly, only regression analysis permits causal modelling. Since it was judged important to identify the net effects of the independent variables on the dependent variable (the Target Language Index) a causal model had to be created, and consequently multiple regression analysis was employed.

Dummy variables

In order to be able to talk about the effects of different characteristics on the Target Language Index, it was important that each variable be coded in such a way that they represented the presence of that characteristic. Thus for example, "female" is coded 1= female, 0= not female, 99=missing data. A number of the variables were already dichotomous, for example: sex, whether or not the teacher was a native speaker, whether or not the teacher had a particular academic qualification and so on. However, some of the variables were not dichotomous. Age, for example was an ordinal variable. It was divided into 5 categories, 20-25, 26-30, 31-35, 36-40, 40+. This variable could have been used in the regression analysis without changing its coding, but the result would have been difficult to interpret. If it transpired that age had a significant effect on the Target Language Index, there would be no way of

knowing which age group was most important in determining the effect. To avoid this problem, most variables which were not already dichotomous were recoded as dummy variables. Thus a variable named "newyoung" was created for age 30 and under, and a second variable "old" was created for teachers over the age of 40. The only exception to this recoding was months residence in France ("monthsfr") which was an interval variable. In contrast to "age" which supplied information about the **category** in which teachers' age fell, the variable "monthsfr" provided the exact number of months a teacher had spent as a resident in a French speaking country. This variable was, therefore, left as an interval variable so that it would be possible to identify the effect of different lengths of residence abroad on teachers' attitudes towards the use of the target language for management purposes as measured by the Target Language Index. Since the TLI, the dependent variable, was also an interval variable, the resulting coefficient represented the number of additional points that a teacher would score on the Target Language Index for every month spent as a resident in France.

Appropriateness of Regression Analysis in causal modelling

There is no statistical problem in employing regression analysis to compute the effects of dummy <u>independent</u> variables on an interval dependent variable (the TLI). However, when the time came to examine the effects of independent variables on each other (in order to determine indirect effects on the TLI), it was then necessary to compute effects on dummy <u>dependent</u> variables. The suitability of regression analysis for this purpose is controversial.[1] The main objection to the use of dummy variables as dependent variables concerns the degree to which they conceal skewed Ns. for example only 14 out of 201 teachers in the CTS had studied French as a single

[1]For the traditional view that regression analysis should not be used in causal models which employ dummy variables, see Asher, H. 1983, Causal Modelling. 2nd Ed. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications. For proof that results obtained by the use of regression with dummy variables differ little from results that might be obtained from the use of methods sometimes considered more "appropriate", see: Kelley, J. and I. McAllister (1985) "Social Context and Electoral Behaviour in Britain" in The American Journal of Political Science. 29/3:564-586.

subject, so the dummy variable "sole" was skewed. If the variable is skewed, then the bias is such that effects on it may be overestimated. This problem did not occur with "sole" since no independent variables were shown to have any effect on it. Of the other dummy variables in the model, only class size is skewed. Only 15% of respondents believed class size not to be a problem. In the causal model, only one variable was shown to have any effect on the variable "class size". Female was shown to have a very small negative effect on it(-0.16). In chapter 5, this anomaly was mentioned but not explained since there is no obvious reason why being female should make a teacher less likely to find class size a problem than being male. Since the effect of skewed dummy variables is to exaggerate effects on them, this finding is undoubtedly totally spurious, and can therefore be ignored.

COMPUTATION OF DIRECT EFFECTS

(Regression Analysis With Target Language Index As Dependent Variable)

The following pages shows extracts from the computer printout of the regression analysis which was performed to compute which teacher characteristics had an important effect on the Target Language Index, and therefore on teachers' attitudes towards the use of the target language as the medium of instruction.

Thirty-two variables were entered into the regression procedure, and then a multiple regression analysis was performed with the Target Language Index as dependent variable.

```
PROCEDURE? regression
VARIABLE LIST?
posindex,yearnot,abilnot,anyvisit,monthsfr,female&
institut,sole, size,nothons,promoted,first,tl&
?lastyr,france,tired,react,confid, ct,letter,read&
?old,nsf,behav,grping, cinema,rusty,tv,gw,newyoung&
?nativspk,fc

DEPENDENT? posindex
EQUATION? enter yearnot to fc

DEPENDENT:  POSINDEX   31 VARIABLES IN

IN EQUATION
   VARIABLE            B

   YEARNOT       16.37294
   ABILNOT       11.35416
   ANYVISIT      21.08633
   MONTHSFR       1.13544
   FEMALE         5.66720
   INSTITUT      11.71675
   SOLE          29.71271
   SIZE          11.16524
   NOTHONS        8.77228
   PROMOTED       4.73381
   FIRST          7.33644
   TL             1.85039
   LASTYR        -6.48637
   FRANCE        -4.87126
   TIRED          -.87466
   REACT          1.07408
   CONFID         6.81037
   CT             4.84945
   LETTER         -.59535
   READ           6.89367
```

	OLD	-5.02854
	NSF	-14.24646
	BEHAV	-14.55809
	GRPING	-2.99734
	CINEMA	.13595
	RUSTY	-.17792
	TV	-3.91429
	GW	2.74527
	NEWYOUNG	-4.76388
	NATIVSPK	19.23691
*	FC	.17121
	(CONSTANT)	13.04176

*** asterisk means least important variable in the set**

From this point onwards asterisked variables which contributed less than half of one percent (0.005) to variance explained were removed from the equation one by one. To reduce the amount of space necessary to display the regression procedure undertaken, only the final list of variables is shown here. The B coefficients represent the effect that each variable has on the target language index as shown in table 5.2 reproduced below.

DEPENDENT: POSINDEX 12 VARIABLES IN. LAST OUT: FRANCE LASTYR

IN EQUATION		
	VARIABLE	B
	FEMALE	5.93959
	MONTHSFR	1.15423
	FIRST	6.69763
	YEARNOT	17.86434
	INSTITUT	10.05203
	ABILNOT	14.57518
	SIZE	8.81995
	ANYVISIT	17.41431
	NOTHONS	7.36014
	SOLE	28.60932
	PROMOTED	5.46627
*	TL	4.81770
	(CONSTANT)	4.37484

Table 5.2. Effect of Characteristics on TLI

Variable Index	Average Effect on the Target Language
The teacher studied French as his sole subject at university	28.6
The teacher believes that the year group being taught (e.g. 1st year, 2nd year) is **not** an impediment to teaching in the TL	17.9
The teacher visited France at least once in the 5 years preceding the survey	17.4
The teacher believes that the presence of low ability pupils in the class is **not** an impediment to teaching in the TL	14.6
The teacher has had at least eight months residence in France[2]	10.4
The teacher attended any of the activities organised by the Alliance Française/ the French Institut or BAL Ecosse (the Bureau d'Action Linguistique) in the preceding year	10.1
The teacher believes that class size **is** an impediment to teaching in the TL	8.8
The teacher does not have an MA or BA Honours degree[3]	7.4
The teacher studied French as the first of two subjects at university	6.7
The teacher is female	5.9
The teacher is in some sort of promoted post in his department	5.5
The use of the Target Language has been identified by the principal teacher as being an official part of the departmental teaching policy	4.8

CAUSAL MODEL: CALCULATION OF INDIRECT EFFECTS

The procedure used to identify effects of intervening variables on the Target Language Index involved a number of stepwise regression

---

[2] "Months spent in France" is an interval rather than a dichotomous variable. Its original effect coefficient (b) was +1.15 meaning that for every additional month a teacher spent as resident in France he would gain 1.15 points on the Target Language Index. However, since all other effects in the table are the average score of teachers in that category, the original effect of this variable was multiplied by the mean number of months residence (9 months) so as to make it comparable with them.

[3] This variable is a conflation of the three variables (which appear in the correlation matrix, table 5.1) concerning which type of degree the teachers possess.

analyses using as dependent variable each variable in turn starting at the extreme right of the diagram (class size, mixed ability, yeargroup), and including in the analysis all independent variables which lie to their left. See figure 2 below for a pictorial representation of the effects found in this analysis. As explained in chapter 5, stepwise analysis was performed in preference to the hybrid procedure adopted in regard to the Target Language Index so as to ensure that the indirect effects identified were of a reasonable size.

Figure 1. Causal Model Relating Teacher Characteristics to the Target Language Index

Biodata →	Qualifications →	Residence in France →	Fluency maintenance →	Departmental aspects →	Reasons for not using TL →	TLI (dependent variable)
Female	Not honours degree Sole subject	Months in France	Visit France Visit French Instititute	Promoted	Class size Mixed ability	

The following analyses are those which showed that **female** had an effect on the dependent variable in question, and therefore indirectly on the Target Language Index.

Class Size as dependent variable and all others to the left (in figure 1) as independent variables

```
DEPENDENT:   SIZE - SIZE OF CLASS IMPORTANT
EQUATION? step promoted to female

BK  MULTR    RSQ  ADJRSQ         F  SIGF   RSQCH SIGCH  DEP:  SIZE
BETAIN
 1  .1903  .0362   .0292     5.186  .024   .0362  .024   IN:  FEMALE
-.1903
1 STEPS PERFORMED
PIN=.050 LIMIT REACHED.
```

```
DEPENDENT:  SIZE    1 VARIABLES IN.  LAST IN:  FEMALE


IN EQUATION
   VARIABLE              B

*  FEMALE          -.16170
   (CONSTANT)       .89796
```

Promoted as dependent variable and all others to the left (in figure 1) as independent variables

```
DEPENDENT:   PROMOTED - ALL TEACHERS IN PROMOTED POST
EQUATION?   step anyvisit to female

BK  MULTR    RSQ  ADJRSQ         F  SIGF   RSQCH SIGCH  DEP:
PROMOTED  BETAIN
 1  .3026  .0916   .0850    13.911  .000   .0916  .000   IN:  FEMALE
-.3026
 2  .3930  .1545   .1421    12.516  .000   .0629  .002   IN:  SOLE
-.2525

DEPENDENT:  PROMOTED   2 VARIABLES IN.  LAST IN:  SOLE

IN EQUATION
   VARIABLE              B

   FEMALE          -.28354
*  SOLE            -.53840
   (CONSTANT)       .78650
```

Target Language in Policy as dependent variable and all others to the left (in figure 1) as independent variables.

```
DEPENDENT:   TL - FORMAT OF POLICY: TARGET LANGUAGE AS MEDIUM OF
INSTRUCTION
EQUATION? step anyvisit to female
BK  MULTR    RSQ  ADJRSQ         F  SIGF   RSQCH SIGCH  DEP:  TL
BETAIN
 1  .2129  .0453   .0384     6.553  .012   .0453  .012   IN:  FEMALE
.2129
 2  .2760  .0762   .0627     5.650  .004   .0309  .034   IN:  FIRST
-.1759
2 STEPS PERFORMED
```

```
PIN=.050 LIMIT REACHED.

DEPENDENT:  TL    2 VARIABLES IN.  LAST IN:  FIRST

IN EQUATION
   VARIABLE              B

   FEMALE            .19783
*  FIRST            -.18688
   (CONSTANT)        .69595
```

Not Honours Degree as dependent variable and all others to the left (in figure 1) as independent variables

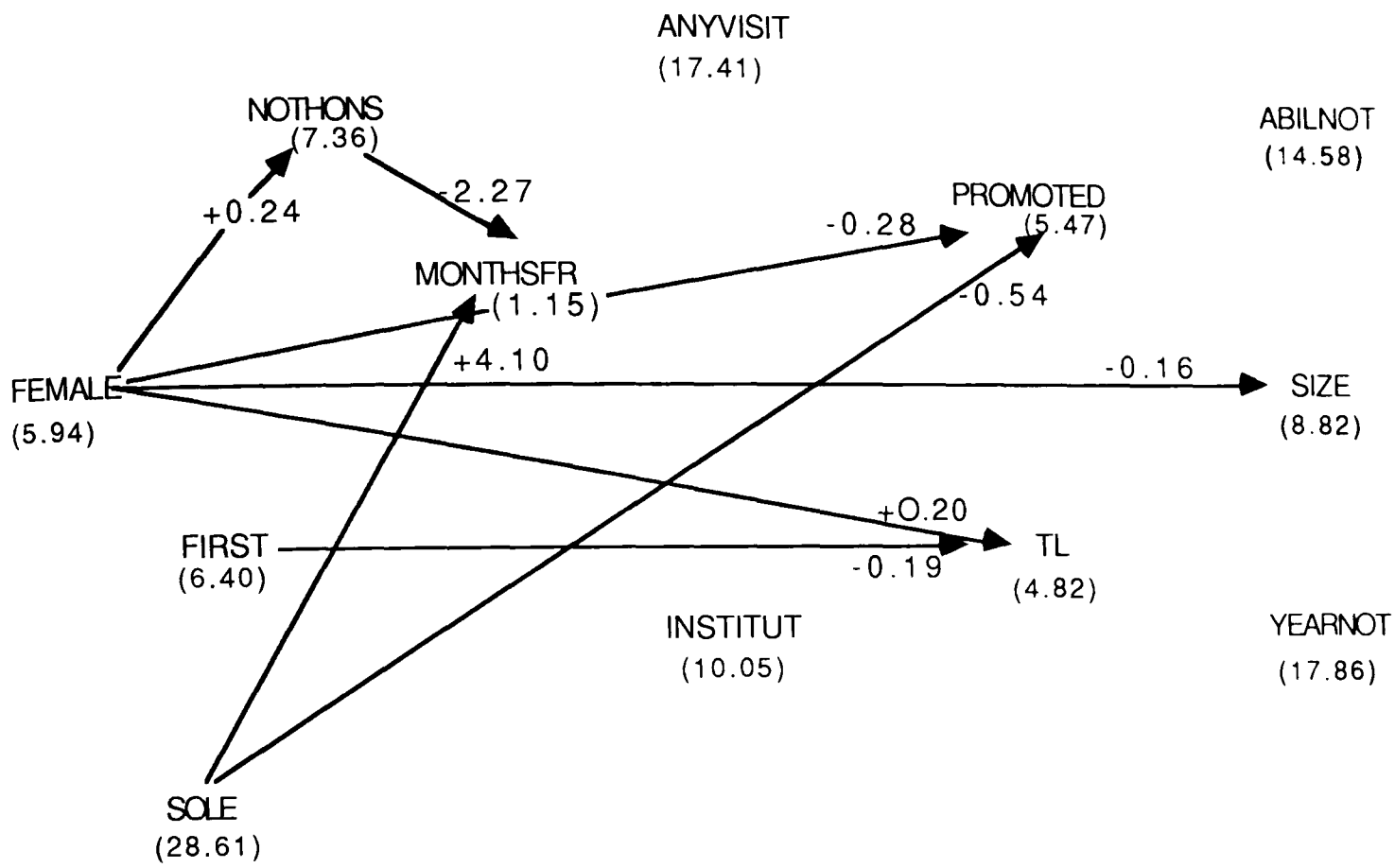
```
DEPENDENT:   NOTHONS - TEACHERS WITHOUT HONOURS DEGREE
EQUATION? step female

BK  MULTR    RSQ  ADJRSQ          F  SIGF   RSQCH SIGCH  DEP:
NOTHONS   BETAIN
 1  .2394  .0573   .0505      8.392  .004   .0573  .004   IN:
FEMALE     .2394
1 STEPS PERFORMED

DEPENDENT:  NOTHONS    1 VARIABLES IN.  LAST IN:  FEMALE
 IN EQUATION
   VARIABLE              B

*  FEMALE            .23705
   (CONSTANT)        .51020
```

FIGURE 3. Causal Model: Relationships Between Independent Variables



COEFFICIENTS IN PARENTHESES REPRESENT THE DIRECT EFFECT OF THAT VARIABLE ON THE TARGET LANGUAGE INDEX

CAUSAL MODEL: CALCULATION OF TOTAL AND NET EFFECTS

To calculate the indirect effect a variable has on the dependent variable (the Target Language Index) the coefficients must be multiplied by the total effect of the intervening variables on the Target Language Index. Then to calculate the total effect a variable has on the dependent variable , indirect effects are added to the direct effect each variable has on the TLI. To calculate net effects of variables, some of whose effects turn out to be transmitted from earlier variables, transmitted effects are subtracted from the total effects of those intervening variables.

NOTE: Subtracting a negative transmitted effect *increases* the value of the effect.

Calculation of Total and Net Effects

ABILNOT

Direct = 14.58

14.58 NET

SIZE

Direct = 8.82

less transmitted

from female -1.41

10.23 NET

YEARNOT

Direct = 17.86

17.86 NET

PROMOTED

Direct = 5.47

less transmitted

from sole -2.95

from female -1.53

9.95 NET

TL

Direct = 4.82

less transmitted

from first -0.92

from female + 0.92

4.82 NET

ANYVISIT

Direct = 17.41

17.41 NET

INSTITUT

Direct= 10.05

10.05 NET

MONTHSFR

Direct = 10.04

less transmitted

from nothons -2.61

from sole +4.72

8.29 NET

NOTHONS

Direct = +7.36

plus indirect

via monthsfr -2.71 X 1.15 = -.261

= +4.75

less transmitted

from female (+1.14)

3.61 NET

SOLE

Direct = 28.6

plus indirect

via monthsfr 4.10 X 1.15 = +4.72

via promoted -0.45 X5.47 = -2.97

30.38 NET

FIRST

Direct = +6.40

plus indirect

via TL -0.19 X 4.82 = -0.92

5.48 NET

FEMALE

Direct = +5.94

plus indirect

via promoted -0.28 X 5.47 = -1.53

via size -0.16 8.82 = -1.41

via TL +0.19 X4.82 = +0.92

via Nothons +0.24 X 4.75 = +1.14

5.06 NET

Appendix G

Occurrence of Verbs in Lessons Observed

* not in Tour de France book 1
+ not in Le Français Fondamental Premier Degré[1]

Verbs **in bold** occur in co-operatively taught lessons only
Verbs ***in italics*** indicate verb uttered by co-operative teacher only

			1	2	3	4
	VERBS		**NO CT 1**	**NO CT 2**	**CT 1**	**CT 2**
1	*	**adorer**	0	0	0	4
2	*	aider	5	1	1	0
3		aimer	1	1	1	0
4	*+	accompagner	0	0	0	2
5	*	ajouter	4	1	1	0
6		aller	17	6	25	37
7		s'amuser	7	0	1	0
8		s'appeler	0	1	6	0
9		**apporter**	0	0	1	1
10		**s'arrêter**	0	0	0	7
11		***arriver***	0	0	0	1
12		s'asseoir	7	0	12	14
13		avoir	7	4	35	33
14	*+	***avoir l'air***	0	0	0	1
15	*	avoir besoin	1	0	1	2
16	*+	avoir de la chance	1	0	0	0
17		**avoir faim**	0	0	3	4
18	*+	**avoir mal**	0	0	0	1
19		avoir raison	2	0	0	0
20		**baisser**	0	0	1	0
21		***bavarder***	0	0	1	0
22		changer	1	0	5	1
23		chanter	1	0	0	0

[1] Verbs which are intended for internalisation in Tour de France Stage 1 are taken from Le Francais Fondamental (premier degré) which was originally written to provide a syllabus of correct French to be used as the "première étape dans l'étude du français" (Ministère de l'Education Nationale, 1954: 6).

24		chercher	2	7	54	6
25	*	choisir	5	0	2	8
26		commencer	12	3	2	6
27		comprendre	0	0	0	1
28		continuer	2	2	4	0
29	*	***se coucher***	0	0	1	0
30	*	crier	1	0	0	0
31	*+	***désirer***	0	0	1	0
32	*	**descendre**	0	0	0	2
33	*	***se déshabiller***	0	0	0	1
34		**dessiner**	0	0	3	0
35		détester	0	1	1	1
36		deviner	1	0	0	0
37	*	devoir	7	2	1	1
38		dire	11	3	16	6
39		disparaître	1	0	0	7
40		**distribuer**	0	0	0	1
41	*	**donner**	0	0	2	1
42	*	**dormir**	0	0	4	4
43		écouter	11	3	7	12
44		écrire	6	8	15	1
45		***enregistrer***	0	0	1	0
46		**entendre**	0	0	1	2
47		**entrer**	0	0	0	5
48	*+	**s'ennuyer**	0	0	0	2
49	*	***espérer***	0	0	1	2
50	*	**essayer**	0	0	2	4
51	*	**essuyer**	0	0	2	0
52		être	279	131	238	148
53		étudier	1	0	0	0
54	*	**s'excuser**	0	0	4	1
55		faire	12	5	3	6
56	*+	faire attention	2	1	1	1
57	*	**faire chaud**	0	0	1	0
58	*+	***faire cuire***	0	0	0	1
59	*	**falloir**	0	0	6	0
60		fermer	11	0	1	0
61	*	finir	0	6	3	0
62	*	gagner	9	4	0	3

63		habiter	1	3	0	0
64	*+	***indiquer***	0	0	2	0
65	*	**laisser**	0	0	2	1
66	*+	***laisser tomber***	0	0	0	1
67		se lever	3	3	5	1
68		lire	1	1	0	2
69		manger	1	0	8	5
70	*	manquer	3	1	3	0
71	*	***marcher***	0	0	0	1
72		**mettre**	0	0	2	67
73	*	monter	1	0	0	0
74	*	montrer	4	0	1	0
75		oublier	1	2	2	4
76		ouvrir	4	6	2	0
77		parler	7	1	2	17
78		**partir**	0	0	0	2
79		**passer**	0	0	0	2
80	*	penser	2	0	2	3
81		perdre	1	0	0	0
82	*+	**plaisanter**	0	0	1	0
83		poser	9	0	6	0
84		pouvoir	13	5	9	9
85	*+	**pratiquer**	0	0	0	1
86		**prendre**	0	0	1	5
87		présenter	1	0	0	0
88		**ranger**	0	0	1	2
89	*	***recommencer***	0	0	0	1
90	*+	***réfléchir***	0	0	0	1
91		regarder	5	7	3	4
92	*+	***regretter***	0	0	1	0
93	*+	***remercier***	0	0	0	1
94		répéter	4	2	4	5
95		répondre	2	0	0	1
96	*	***se reposer***	0	0	1	1
97		***représenter***	0	0	1	0
98		**rester**	0	0	2	0
99	*+	***rêver***	0	0	1	0
100	*+	***revenir***	0	0	0	1
99	*	***rire***	0	0	1	0
100		savoir	13	12	13	1

101	sortir	2	0	0	3
102 *	***suivre***	0	0	2	0
103	tenir	1	0	2	0
104	tourner	0	9	3	1
105	travailler	1	0	1	3
106 *	tricher	0	2	0	0
107	**trouver**	0	0	1	0
108	venir	5	1	30	9
109	voir	3	1	6	8
110 *	vouloir	0	1	5	12
111 *+	***vouloir dire***	0	0	14	1
TOTAL NUMBER OF VERBS		53	35	75	71
TOTAL OCCURRENCES		515	247	637	517
TOTAL NUMBER OF VERBS (LESS ABNORMALLY HIGH)[2]		49	31	70	66
TOTAL OCCURRENCES		210	99	283	293

[2] Five verbs (aller, avoir, chercher, être, mettre) appeared with abnormally high occurrences in some, or all, of the lessons.

Appendix H
Coder Reliability

Introduction

In analysing the observation study data, serious attempts were made to ensure that coder reliability was achieved. The degree of reliability was not, however, measured quantitatively.

Two kinds of coding were employed. Firstly, transcripts of each lesson were prepared and then coded using the 6 dimensions of the Co-operative Teaching Analysis System (COPTAS). Secondly, the relative quantities of French and English for management purposes were timed.

Coding with COPTAS

To ensure coder reliability in the use of the Co-operative Teaching Analysis System, a small number of transcripts were coded several times. Firstly, 2 transcripts of the lessons of teacher C1 and two of C2 were coded using the original ten management categories and 5 language practice categories.[1] When difficulties were encountered in matching all utterances to these categories, an additional 9 categories were created. See chapter 3 and Appendix C for full specification of the final version of the Co-operative Teaching Analysis System.

Next, the original four transcripts plus an additional two of teacher B1 (one co-operatively taught and the other not) were coded using the new system. When the first and second codings of the original four transcripts of C1 and C2 were compared, little difference was identified except with respect to the category of

[1]The original ten management categories were: chatting informally, organising the classroom, giving activity instructions, explaining meanings, teaching grammar, teaching background, discussing language objectives, correcting written work, running tests, and disciplining. The original 5 language practice categories were: exercise (drill, information gap, or open-ended) and role play (scripted or open-ended)

"chatting informally" which had proved extremely difficult to identify. This problem was discussed in chapter 6 (page 120). At this point, it was decided to code as "chatting" only those utterances which expected (although did not necessarily receive) a student response, and which concerned the pupils' or teacher's home or school life. All of the remaining utterances which did not easily fit into any of the existing categories were coded as "other". All utterances in the lessons of C1 and C2 which had previously been categorised as "chatting" were recoded. Then the two transcripts of teacher B1 were completely recoded using the final version of COPTAS. Again, the utterances which had originally been coded as chatting proved difficult to categorise, but otherwise the original and second codings were found to be largely the same.

A satisfactory degree of reliability across six transcripts having been achieved, the remaining lessons were transcribed and coded.

Timing the Relative Amounts of French and English

In chapter 3 (section 3.4), it was explained that, when applying COPTAS to the lesson transcripts, some instances of classroom management language were not separately coded if they did not alter the pattern of expectation of the segment. This methodology was not adopted when timing relative proportions of French and English for management purposes. Instead, timing took place at the level of the individual move. This meant that it was possible to record accurately instances of code-switching such as that found in the lessons of teacher C2. For example, her phrase "ouvrez vos cahiers at the back" was timed as part French and part English for management purposes. The practical problem of timing one-word code-switches, however, proved too difficult to overcome. Thus, when a teacher inserted the word "right" in an otherwise all French sentence, or "bon" in an otherwise English sentence, the code-switch was not recorded.

To quantify the exact amounts of French and English for

classroom management purposes, the lesson recordings were timed on the Apple Macintosh Computer using a Hypercard program which had been designed specifically for that purpose. The timing was initiated by clicking with the mouse on a button on the computer screen, and then was continued by holding down one of two keys which timed respectively French and English for management purposes. When both keys were released all other discourse plus silence was timed. Timing continued until the stop button was clicked on the computer screen. During the coding the coder read the lesson transcript. This enabled her to predict where to raise her fingers and where to press the keys, although the exact timing of this depended on the tape-recording itself.

The logistics of switching from one finger to another to time French and English, and then raising both fingers for all other discourse, initially proved extremely difficult. This was largely due to the fact that the lesson transcripts showed only the incidence of classroom discourse of various types, but did not indicate the length of silences. Consequently, most lessons had to be coded several times. It would be misleading to suggest that a perfect match was found between different codings of the same lessons. This was not so. However, as the coder gained experience, discrepancies between codings amounted to seconds rather than minutes, and did not affect relative proportions of French, English, and other discourse.